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OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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**The Principal's Role
Improving the Curriculum**

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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Introduction

THE American secondary-school curriculum occupies a strategic position in the nation's educational pattern. The program of education of the secondary schools is in a period of critical evaluation. Various groups are offering panaceas for improving the secondary curriculum. The alarmists are pointing to its inadequacies. The reactionaries are suggesting that it be dehydrated of everything but the so-called basic subjects. The special interest groups are busy pushing certain subject matter fields as worthy of major emphasis.

The Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals is fully cognizant of its responsibility for the formation of policy and for furnishing leadership in matters concerning the curriculum. The committee has been pursuing two major objectives: (1) the curriculum of the comprehensive high school offers the best structure and content for fulfilling the American ideal of adequate educational opportunities for all youth, and (2) the most effective leadership for curriculum improvement comes from the principal of each individual school as he organizes his faculty, his student body, and his community in an all-out effort to meet the needs of the boys and girls in his school.

The Curriculum Committee is busily engaged at the present time in trying to establish the proper position of science, mathematics, and modern foreign language in the comprehensive high school. This work is aimed at the fulfillment of the first objective mentioned above. This issue of THE BULLETIN is devoted entirely to the role of the principal in curriculum improvement. It represents an extensive effort to achieve the second objective.

This curriculum issue of THE BULLETIN has been in preparation for three years. The nature of the material and the selection of the writers made it a lengthy and involved process. Its purpose is to offer assistance to both the experienced and inexperienced principal. The material has been derived from actual practices and experiences.

Through a preliminary survey, an effort was made to determine what states were actively engaged in curriculum work and were securing creditable results. The next step was to query state departments of education and state secondary-school principals' organizations for the names of leaders who were doing significant work in curriculum development. After these curriculum leaders were identified, each person was asked to suggest a title for an article he might write, describing the curriculum work he was doing. These titles were carefully screened

and grouped according to what material would be most significant in relation to the title of this publication—"The Principal's Role in Improving the Curriculum."

Each writer was urged to describe his own personal experience or the experience of others with which he was familiar. He was also asked to make his article practical, concise, and factual.

The Curriculum Committee wishes to take this opportunity to thank the forty authors who graciously gave of their time and effort in preparing articles for this BULLETIN. The limitation of space and duplication of some of the material have made it necessary to include only twenty-six of the articles in the present issue. The other fourteen articles will appear in subsequent issues of the BULLETIN.

DELMAS F. MILLER, *Chairman*
Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development.

Acknowledgment

INTENSIVE professional activity is in evidence among leaders in secondary education in many school communities. The high purpose of such effort and development is to provide the best possible program of education for all American youth. Accounts of the outcomes of such professional interest and endeavor are contained in this special issue of *THE BULLETIN*—three years in preparation after it was first planned by the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development.

Although credit for this professional contribution to curriculum development could go to many, special mention will be made here only of those educators who carried the major role in the preparation, organization, and publication of this special issue of *THE BULLETIN*.

Our roll of honor contains the authors of the articles in this publication and other articles that will appear in later issues of *THE BULLETIN*; the chairman of the Curriculum Committee, Delmas F. Miller; Ellsworth Tompkins, Associate Secretary; and Walter E. Hess, Managing Editor of *THE BULLETIN*.

PAUL E. ELICKER, *Executive Secretary*
National Association of Secondary-School Principals

PART 1: General Considerations

My Changing Concept of Leadership in Education

ROBERT H. QUIGGLE

WHEN I first became a full-time high-school principal in 1943, I don't recall being particularly concerned with the improvement of curriculum. My concern had much more to do with housekeeping and maintaining an efficient appearance in our school. I was the boss and the teachers soon learned what was expected. They knew that if their classrooms were reasonably quiet, if few complaints came to me from their students or the students' parents, and if they did what I asked them to do when I asked them to do it, they were quite sure to win my approval.

Also, it was obvious that the teachers were not concerned with the improvement of curriculum. They functioned with the students in very much the same manner as I functioned with them. In other words, authority was playing a dominant role in our school, and we found a constant need for the utilization of various penalties for violation of proper behavior patterns. With our small student body of two hundred and forty students and my natural detective instincts, we were able to maintain a well-ordered school. The need for disciplinary measures did not increase nor did they decrease. Our student atmosphere did not improve, nor did our student holding power.

The occasional satisfaction I got from proving to a student that he could not outwit me did not compensate for an increasingly uneasy feeling. What were we really doing for our students? Were we preparing these young people to live successfully in a democratic society, or were we preparing them to take orders in some police state? Should teaching be a constant process of doing things to people, or would it be more appropriate in our society if teaching were more often a process of helping people do things to and for themselves? These concerns, along with the knowledge that my community looked upon me as a successful principal and that they approved of my approach, caused me some anxiety.

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On the strength of our obviously well-ordered school, I was offered the principalship in a neighboring high school which had almost twice as many students. The months intervening between my accepting the new position and actually functioning in it found me doing a great deal of soul searching. A few of my hypotheses were:

1. In education, an authoritarian approach automatically limits the accomplishments to the capabilities of the one in command.

2. Teachers are likely to use the same approach with their students as their administrator uses with them.

3. When people behave because someone in authority is watching them, they are learning to beware of authority and, therefore, are not necessarily improving their values.

4. When peoples' actions are predominantly the result of instructions, the product is also somewhat predetermined and stereotyped. In other words, an authoritarian environment places a high premium on conformity—consequently, there is danger that an individual and the situation in which he functions may not rise above mediocrity.

These considerations were yeast that had risen from my first full-time principalship. Therefore, in my youthful enthusiasm, these drawbacks to proper education were going to be overcome in my new school immediately. First, we would organize our faculty in such a manner that everyone would be in a position to contribute to the development of our program for the welfare of students. We established a teachers' planning council, which was an organization composed of all regular faculty members in our high school. The purpose of this council was the promotion of good student-teacher relationships; democratic teacher-administrator relationships; and a better understanding among pupils, parents, teachers, and administrators.

A chairman and a secretary were elected annually by the council. These two officers, two elected board members, and the principal as an *ex-officio* member, composed the executive planning board. This board met prior to regular council meetings in order to discuss problems, issues, and suggestions coming from pupils, parents, or school staff. It prepared the agenda for the planning council and distributed it to the faculty in advance of the regular meeting.

The planning council met regularly twice each month—more frequently when necessary. It considered carefully the items on the agenda, and all faculty and administrative personnel were given opportunity to express themselves. Special committees were sometimes appointed to investigate problems and then report on these to the council. A consistent effort was made to use group process techniques in order that the council might make decisions representing the unanimous approval of all teachers and administrators.

For eight years we had the pleasure of working in this one school, utilizing the above procedure. Although from an exterior point of view it appeared that our school was a democratic organization, for at least the first four years it was no more democratic than the preceding school.

Organization and structure are only mechanical tools that may help us. The spirit and motivating forces from within, however, are the real determining factors. Even though we were organized in such a way that every teacher could be heard, I did not have sufficient confidence in myself or in them to be democratic; although I sincerely thought I was. My technique was to determine where we should go and then proceed to get the teachers to see that we got there. I was a manipulator, and, as such, a no better or a less honest administrator than I had been in my preceding school.

Observation, objective analysis, and more soul searching finally drove home to me the fact that our program was not causing our teachers to try enthusiastically to improve the learning approach for our students. Our school was not a vibrant living place, filled with eager, friendly, and cooperative students. Nothing had developed that I, personally, had not promoted, and, therefore, the program still had me as the ceiling. Furthermore, I had not been fooling anyone—students or teachers. They could observe, and they could analyze, too. At this point I felt forced to accept a few more hypotheses, which were:

1. People do not fully identify themselves with a situation until they are truly involved in decision making.
2. People judge us more by our actions than by what we say (an adage which we sometimes pass by.)
3. In school administration there are two areas of decision making—one which is pure routine and procedure, and important from the organizational point of view; the other, developmental, or how can we do better than we are doing?
4. Educational leadership should be a process of releasing potential in accordance with predetermined basic concepts.
5. Educational leadership in a principal's office has much in common with educational leadership in a classroom.
6. One of the best ways for anyone to exert leadership is by honest participation with others in solving problems.
7. The more our leadership depends upon status, the less productive it will be toward creativity.

With hypotheses number 1 and 2 very much in my mind, I became convinced that hypothesis 3 was at least an opening key to our dilemma. Our faculty unanimously agreed from then on that routine and procedure decisions would be made by the individuals most directly involved, and, for those decisions, the individual making them was directly responsible to the principal. Also there was complete faculty agreement that developmental decisions, as long as they did not violate school district policy and as long as they pertained only to our staff and to our school, were to be made by our high-school faculty through our faculty organization. The principal would participate in these consensus decisions and would work with the other members of the staff in carrying them out.

As I look back, the real key to our program's becoming vibrant, dynamic, and creative was my finally coming to the place where I really

had faith and confidence in the people with whom I was working. Two schools and eight years later, my convictions regarding leadership in education are very strong. Perhaps our situations have been unique, but I don't believe so. If a faculty cooperately determines the school's purposes in accordance with proved principles of learning and establishes a few basic concepts for guide posts, I believe that school will soon show signs of being dynamic and creative.

At the risk of sounding complacent—something I could not possibly be—I wish to share with you a few of the satisfactions that have come to me in recent years. Faculty members of the two schools in which I have most recently worked have, almost to a man, constantly stretched themselves toward becoming better teachers. They have worked extra hours on committees, with individual students, and on the hundred and one things that a good teacher finds to do without any sign of complaint. Our students look upon their teachers as partners, and seek their guidance. School is something meaningful to these young people, and their increasing ability toward self-direction makes it necessary for all of us to stretch to keep pace. Of course, as does every school, we have problems. But everyone, students as well as teachers, is eager to help solve them.

A few of the basic concepts that have benefited us immeasurably in attaining the atmosphere that is present in our program are as follows:

1. Teaching is a process of helping people do things to and for themselves.
2. In educating, we must start with each individual where he is.
3. A teacher should function as a catalyst; he has the responsibility to help bring all available resources into the solution of problems.
4. Things don't just happen; they are caused.
5. Content is very important, but it is most properly used as a means toward an end and not as an end in itself.
6. Teaching improves as teachers improve.
7. Leadership in education, whether it be in the principal's office or in the classroom, represents a constant process of releasing human potential.

It is my belief that, as educational leaders, we have the responsibility of providing the mechanics that help create a situation conducive to growth. Then we should see to it that all available resources have a real opportunity to enter into the solution of our common problems. Routine and procedural decisions are important because they provide a plane upon which the developmental processes may take place, and, therefore, we get those decisions made as expediently as possible so that the group can start working on the important developmental approaches.

It is impossible for me to see how growth can start anywhere except with the individual who is doing the growing. If this is true, how can any situation improve or how can individuals grow and develop unless these individuals are truly involved? It is my opinion that individuals

will not be truly involved unless what they think and what they say actually counts. After this is true, then the only limiting factor is the combined potential of the people involved, and, if each is constantly utilizing all available resources, the total potential is an ever-increasing quality as well as quantity.

A Climate Conducive to Curriculum Study

ARNOLD W. SALISBURY

CURRICULUM improvement occurs only after there is a felt need for such improvement on the part of all concerned—the administration, faculty, students, and the community which the school serves. One of the most vital functions of the principal in this whole process of improvement is the development and maintenance of the atmosphere in which this felt need can germinate and grow into positive action.

Gone is the day when the principal was the dictator of the subject offerings and the course content of the curriculum of a school. The principal who tries to bring about curriculum improvement in such a fashion today runs headlong into a stone wall. His most effective work in this area lies in the creation of an atmosphere in which real change and improvement can take place.

Before any principal can embark upon a program leading to curriculum development, there are some important analyses that must take place:

1. A self-analysis of the principal. What kind of person is he? How does he do his best work? Is he really interested in change that might result from curriculum improvement? What is his attitude toward new ideas and techniques? What about experimentation?

2. Study of the faculty of the school. What types of personalities are involved? Do faculty members have real academic curiosity? How competent is each professional person? Where are the potential leaders? How do faculty members feel about experimentation with new plans and techniques?

3. Analysis of the student body and community served by the school. What are the real educational potentials of the students? Wherein do student and adult interests lie? Is the community receptive to new ideas on educational programs and techniques?

4. Careful study of the present educational program of the school. What are the strengths and/or weaknesses of the curriculum as it exists? How does

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it compare with the program which is suggested in competent professional literature?

5. Is there a favorable climate for curriculum study and improvement among faculty members, students, and the community?

If the so-called felt need for curriculum study is not evident, the principal must initiate some sort of activity which will point out such a need. A few of the means he may use to start such considerations are:

1. A program of planned visitation to some of those schools which have what are considered to be good programs.

2. A comprehensive follow-up study of the graduates to try to discover successes and/or failures of the products of the school.

3. A broad scale testing program in academic areas. For example, the use of a battery of tests such as *The Iowa Tests of Educational Development* would be most helpful, especially if the testing service should include an item analysis of responses.

4. A search for one small thing in which all teachers are interested and a decision to work on that.

5. A program of visitation and evaluation by a team of competent professional persons.

The resourceful principal will discover other ways to develop in his school the atmosphere in which effective curriculum work can be done. One of the above techniques can be used as a "springboard" to further work.

After an awareness of need exists, the principal has a very real job in developing this interest. He must keep the fires of interest burning brightly and, at the same time, he must do all he can to see to it that the efforts of those involved result in some degree of early success. In this process, the principal must not do the work! He must serve as expeditor, referee, explorer, clerk, *etc.* However, he seeks to develop the leadership from within the working group.

The principal must see that proper recognition is given to individuals and groups who are working in curriculum improvement projects. There must be reports to the entire faculty as the work progresses. Any person or group achieving any degree of success in a curriculum improvement project merits appropriate recognition. The principal must see to it that such recognition is given and that progress reports are made.

He must be ever alert to help any group interpret the effect of any recommended curriculum change on the total educational program. Especially, he must help faculty members to see the far-reaching effects even of minor changes in the total picture.

In the maintenance of the atmosphere conducive to curriculum improvement, the principal must employ all the resources at his command. Necessary released time, facilities for informal as well as formal discussion, clerical assistance, professional literature and reference, and provision for resource persons are all services which the principal can make available to working groups. These services will make the work

for the group easier and will help maintain an atmosphere in which curriculum development is more likely to take place.

Good results cannot be expected from any faculty group, if curriculum study and work is added to an already heavy teaching load. Necessary released time must be provided for really effective work. Comfortable and efficient facilities and equipment for working groups are essential for the proper atmosphere most conducive to the best results.

A professional working group should not be fettered by the time-consuming clerical and secretarial work necessary to curriculum study. A principal can do much to develop a healthy atmosphere for cooperative and willing work by the simple act of removing tiresome clerical work from the shoulders of the professional staff.

Ample source of curriculum reference materials and expert consultants must be made readily available to a faculty working group. Thus, frustration may often be avoided.

Perhaps some of the above suggestions may seem elementary, but a principal should keep these in mind as he begins to build an atmosphere in which good curriculum improvement doesn't just happen; it is the result of good seed planted on fallow ground in a climate which is conducive to its growth and development. Perhaps the principal may be labeled as the "gardener" in this process.

Finally, the principal must foster the feeling of accomplishment among the faculty by making provision for evaluation and follow-up at the proper times. Constant evaluation during progress of the projects and proper testing and evaluation following their completion are vital to the maintenance of the healthy atmosphere necessary for further curriculum development.

The Principal Facilitates Curriculum Study

DELMO DELLA-DORA

"Forbear to judge, for we are sinners all

... draw the curtain close

And let us all to meditation."—Shakespeare, *King Henry VI*

THE use of teacher observation forms or teacher rating in general is not an effective instrument for improvement of instruction. Among the reasons for this are: (1) it assumes a relationship between teacher and principal which is harmful to both; (2) the chief motivating force for change in behavior is coercion, whether subtle and implied or direct.

Let's look at the matter of relationships first. The activities of the principal who relies on rating or observation to effect changes in teacher methods imply that: (1) administration is essentially a controlling, directing function; (2) the purposes of education are those which exist in the principal's mind; and (3) the principal can and does exhibit judgment superior to that of any teacher regarding teaching methods and understanding children.

Another kind of relationship between teacher and principal is possible. Kimball Wiles and Ted Rice, among others, have expressed it in writing. Some elementary-school principals and a lesser number of high-school principals have practiced it. Stated briefly their definition of administration emphasizes the function of *effectively arranging for services needed to have each classroom teacher operate at optimum efficiency*. Coordinating and providing situations in which intelligent decisions can be made by those affected then become two of the principal's major activities. There are other major implications for operation which evolve from this relationship, but only enough are cited here to show that kind of evaluation which would be consistent with such an operational principle. In contrast to the first view described:

1. Administration becomes a facilitating, coordinating function designed to make good teaching easier to accomplish.

2. The purposes of education are defined by sharing of ideas among all the professional staff (and beyond them as well).

3. It is assumed that each teacher can come to understand himself and her students better than can a principal, and, therefore, is a better judge of what is appropriate in the classroom.

Many principals can and do reject these notions as being idealistic and unrealistic. However, those few who have used the concepts have this to say about them. First, the responsibility for improvement is put where it belongs; namely, with the teacher. We cannot continue to ask

Delmo Della-Dora is Secondary-School Consultant for the Wayne County Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan.

for professional behavior and then proceed to treat teachers as mental inferiors simultaneously. Second, it places equal responsibility for improvement on the principal. He is not officially assumed to have superior judgment in all educational matters, a fact which teachers have long recognized and most of us will admit when teachers are not around.

What becomes of the principal in such a situation? Does he become a figurehead with no authority—a man without convictions or purposes of his own? How can he display leadership without leading *someone*? These questions are not easily answered. However, an illustration based on personal experience and observation may help clarify the role.

I. *The principal should develop a written statement of the administrative services which he feels are important and appropriate to the job.*—This is best done in the company of other administrators in the same school system. In 1953, such a statement evolved from discussions among the superintendent, principals, and central office staff of Mason Consolidated Schools (Erie, Michigan). In the course of the meetings, we were able to discover our areas of common agreement and also clarify each individual's concept of his own job. These were immediate by-products of the process and it would have been worth while in terms of time and outcomes even if we had stopped at this stage.

II. *The principal should assess his own strengths and weaknesses in terms of the criteria developed.*—A realistic self-appraisal is an essential ingredient for a person whose job requires sensitivity to his effect on other persons. The type of administrative functions which were identified in the study referred to previously include such items as:

- a. Administrators provide situations in which teachers have an opportunity to share in making decisions which will affect them.
- b. Administrative services make it easy for teachers to obtain supplies and personal assistance when needed.
- c. Administrators provide a variety of means by which teachers can identify curriculum problems and then assist teachers in the process of solving them.
- d. Effective means of communication among teachers in a given building are developed through the services of the building principal as an essential step in facilitating integration and articulation of the program.

III. *The principal should check his perceptions against those of his teachers.*—In Erie, we set aside a half-day of released time each year and call it "Evaluation Day." Teachers meet in small discussion groups and review the administrative criteria. Their opinions are recorded by a member of the group and the results are compiled. The discussion groups analyze each of the statements presented to them on the basis of three questions: (a) Is this an appropriate administrative function; *i.e.*, should it be continued? (b) If appropriate, how adequately has it been carried out so far this year? (c) What other functions or services should be added to the list?

In addition to the small discussion group, each individual answers two questions anonymously: (a) What has been the greatest source of satisfaction or strength regarding administrative services this year? (b) What has been the chief source of concern or irritation regarding administrative services this year?

Teachers compile these individual responses and the results of both phases of the process are duplicated and given to all staff members. Each principal then meets with his teachers to discuss suggestions made by them. In some cases there is misunderstanding. A simple explanation solves the problem, but in most cases either the principal or teachers propose ways of resolving problems. The principal then makes a progress report as the year goes on, indicating what had been done regarding each item. In several cases suggestions lead to the formation of study committees or action committees appropriate to the nature of the recommendation. By the end of the year, action is either completed or initiated for all ideas. This phase of the process is not recommended for principals with tender egos.

IV. Principals should encourage teachers to develop their own criteria for self-evaluation in all phases of the job.—As in the case of principals, the job is best done where there is a sharing of ideas with colleagues and agreements are reached on the requirements of the job. Also, as with principals, the very process of discussion may result in as much curriculum improvement as will the succeeding steps.

The next step for teachers would be self-evaluation on the basis of the criteria. From this point on, the approach should be different from that employed by the principal. It is appropriate for the principal to check his perceptions against those of teachers because his job is primarily to be of service to *them*. On the other hand, the teachers' function is to provide services for *children*. Their obligation to the principal is to cooperate in measures designed to make it possible for him to be of service to them.

There is one way in which teacher self-evaluation does relate directly to the job of the principal. He can suggest or require teachers to have a conference with him after they complete their self-evaluation. The word "require" is used here because he may be obligated to turn in an evaluation for tenure purposes. Whether required or permissive, the nature of such a conference is similar. The teacher indicates what she considers to be her specific strengths and weaknesses. Ideally, she then asks the principal for assistance in overcoming certain weaknesses. The comments of the principal at this point are crucial because each teacher will come into the conference with varying degrees of need to preserve her concept of herself. Different defenses will be used and the principal's job is both to know each teacher well and to have some skill in the principles of non-directive counseling. This is something which many principals have learned through experience. The qualities of a good principal make it relatively easy to develop or

increase competency in this area. The degree of success with which such a conference will proceed depends in large measure on how well the principal succeeds in convincing teachers that he is a service person.

Urbanization, the "cold war," and other factors which increase the complexity of living are accompanied by anxiety and fear. Fear and anxiety lead to many kinds of defense mechanisms including projection of our problems. We have reached a new peak of critical comments and judging of others of late. Congress blames Ike, Ike blames the Pentagon, and everyone blames the public schools. We presently have great pressure to assess critically the teachers, students—and administrators—and it will eventually become more intense in the future. If we do not yield to the pressure and turn, instead, in the direction of self-evaluation processes, we build the capabilities of teachers and principals alike. And we don't cheat pupils of the services of able, mature, and self-directing adults.

The Principal Interprets His Role in Curriculum Development

J. G. UMSTATT

NO PRINCIPAL can exercise the role of leader if he himself doesn't fit together, if he is not a well-integrated personality moving toward a well-defined goal. Assuming these basic prerequisites, let us draw from our observation and put together the various parts of his complex job as leader in curriculum development.

INTERPRETER OF OUR CULTURE TO YOUTH

It is the principal who is primarily responsible for the transition of each generation from childhood to youth in our rapidly changing world culture. He, more than any other person, is charged with making the transition smooth and complete by keeping the educational program attuned to the times. For example, right now it takes level headed leadership to keep the high-school program balanced with the optimum proportions of the humanities and the sciences. Until the Explorer quieted the nerves of the nation, there was danger of an overemphasis on science, despite the well-known lag of the social behind the technological developments.

Level headed leadership in the job of interpretation requires both perspective and knowledge of cultural developments. The principal must, therefore, spend more time reading and studying in the fields of

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social studies and human relationships than he does on office routine or promoting a winning football team. At this point, staff utilization policies of superintendents and boards in some school systems must be revised to relieve the principal of sub-professional routines. (There is little hope of curing the football mania, but at least any principal who has a severe case should re-evaluate his function.)

The social learnings acquired from constant study should be related to the program of the school. For example, the new concepts and techniques of mathematics and their relationships to life today are not covered in our conventional mathematic courses. Readers who doubt this statement are referred to the Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th Street, New York 27. This commission is giving serious attention to the newer objectives of secondary-school mathematics and to the new content in mathematics designed to serve current needs of our culture. Materials will be supplied on request. Here is a vital point to re-emphasize curricular revision.

The main strategy of the principal in interpreting our developing culture to youth is to provide educational activities that gear into contemporary problems the youth now faces, activities that thereby give him a chance to participate in those problems in addition to reading about their antecedents and observing them as a bystander. Not all principals are providing these experiences, but a person would not have to go very far to find modern languages being learned through language laboratories that reflect the culture of the peoples, through personal contact with native users of the language, through personal correspondence across language boundaries, through living in foreign homes and through other activities to supplement the study of books and to bring the learner the feel of the culture. One could easily find all phases of our technology tied to the curricular experience through the amazing exhibits at science fairs, with their solar furnaces, rockets, radio and TV sets, and other projects that match current scientific developments. Close by are the equally amazing exhibits of industrial arts with their shop-made tools, their creative designs in metal and plastics, and their products of forge and kiln. Parallels could be drawn from the activities of social studies laboratories, communication centers, business education departments, homemaking suites, and all the other academic and so called non-academic fields. Let it be clear that these applications to life today only supplement the theoretical study of the basic principles. The only thing that is more sterile than practice without theory is theory without practice.

The modern American secondary-school principal, if all 28,000 may for a moment be considered as one, is playing a vast role as interpreter of our culture to youth in providing educational experiences in all areas of knowledge that are related to life and attuned to the times. To do this fully might well become the unifying purpose of the principal's life and his work, the ideal that integrates his being and energizes his efforts.

PROFESSIONAL LEADER OUT BEYOND

To achieve the leadership of youth just implied requires professional knowledge, insight, and vision that will help the principal gain acceptance as professional leader of the faculty. His is the twofold task of looking out beyond the subject matter of subject fields handled by the faculty into the general objectives of secondary education and gaining the willing cooperation of the staff in defining and driving toward those objectives.

This is no simple task. Acceptance has a broader base than knowledge or even vision. It is also based on good morale. Thus a part of the principal's intricate task is the effective application of such morale building practices as imparting a sense of belonging to each staff member, giving scrupulously fair treatment to all, fully recognizing credit where it is due, maintaining pleasant working conditions, instilling in each a sense of achievement and a feeling of importance, giving each a voice in the formulation of policy, and promoting a true sense of security through significant work well rewarded.¹ And it should be added that the solid rock upon which both good morale and acceptance of leadership are based is the possession of the loyalty-winning traits of courage, honesty, and sincerity. It is also well to recall Albert Schweitzer's observation, "Example is not the main thing in influencing others. It is the only thing."

CURRICULUM DIRECTOR

In at least three fourths of the high schools, there is no curriculum director other than the principal. In the rest, the principal is the overseer of the director so far as his school is concerned. Consequently, if the program is to advance in culture-bearing experiences for youth, the principal must provide the motivation, or perhaps only keep the way cleared for the abler teachers, and in either case serve as co-ordinator of the new developments.

Because of this phase of his total job, the principal is a constant student of the curricular problems of his school. He is sensitive to the possibility of change in the student body and sees that proper alterations are made in the offering when changes actually come. He makes the program vary with the abilities of the pupils that each may reach his own ceiling. The guidance and evaluation programs are kept co-ordinated with the curricular developments to bring to each pupil the greatest possible benefit from his high-school experience. These fundamentals of curriculum development are only suggestive of the many aspects of the principal's role as co-ordinator, but they suffice for our present purpose of outlining his role as leader.

SUPERVISOR OF INSTRUCTION

The goals of secondary education cannot be reached if teaching procedures do not parallel curricular developments. Again, it is the prin-

¹ See Irene W. Deupree, *Morale Building Techniques in Texas Secondary Schools*, Research Study No. 24, Texas Study of Secondary Education. 217 Sutton Hall, The University of Texas, Austin.

principal who stimulates and guides in the development of appropriate procedures.

If teaching is to make best use of new developments in sound and visual instruments that constantly flow from industry, someone in the school must learn of the potentials of the new aids to learning, see that they are provided, and supervise their initial use. The principal may not be qualified to do this, but it is his responsibility to see that it is done.

To eliminate from the teaching process and from its accompanying machinery of marking and grading all elements that injure mental health, stifle imagination, and deaden curiosity is a problem of the supervisor of instruction (the principal in the majority of schools) which has not yet been solved in any appreciable degree. Our society in general rather than teacher, principal, or school is at fault because it demands the kind of procedures that are detrimental and rebels against procedures that would promote creativity, preserve normal health, and satisfy the natural curiosity of childhood and youth. Witness the irrational attacks upon progressive education when it attempts to use the procedures validated by psychology and psychiatry in promoting normal growth and development. Here is an area in which progress will be slow at best, but it is one of which the principal must be aware and toward which he must be patient. Perhaps his chief strategy is to inform and to present evidence that will counteract public prejudice.

PUBLIC RELATIONS OFFICER

Who but the principal is the one to represent the high school in the community? He is best qualified to explain the changes in the program required by cultural changes if youth are to become prepared for adulthood. The principal is, therefore, the logical person to gain community acceptance of the improved curriculum. In short, he is the public relations officer of the school in promoting the program with the taxpayer and parent.

This is not to say that the principal is the sole agent. He learned long ago that the pupil is the best builder of good will for the school in the community. Therefore, he is engaged in basic public relations work when he leads in developing a worth-while and an interesting educational program, when he works for methods that stimulate youth and result in the thrill of achievement, when he protects youth against injustices in school and elsewhere, when he administers justice fairly though sometimes severely, and when he in his every act tries to make school life a pleasant experience for youth.

In his public relations activities, the principal coordinates a program that involves such home-school relationships as orientations of parents to the high school before the pupil enters; pre-registration planning conferences of parent, pupil and teacher or counselor; visits of parents to a variety of school functions; visits of home-room teachers and others to the homes; teacher-parent conferences to supplement report cards at

grading periods; use of a variety of parent-student-school organizations that involve patrons in measures to improve the school; and the issuance of publications that keep communication clear and its lines open.

Nor is the principal less sensitive to the public in general than he is to the parents of the student body. The general public is kept informed of the school program and needs through cordial relations with civic and service clubs, church and charity agencies, chamber of commerce and business groups, labor organizations, the local press, and the various youth serving personnel of the community. The principal or his representative works hand in hand with the law enforcement and corrective agencies. These contacts keep the public actively involved in the educational program as well as informed of its purposes, practices, and problems. Herein lies the vast and important difference between the official-dominated system of secondary education in Europe and the local-autonomy system in America. People who believe in democracy are convinced that the American system of community involvement has provided youth with the stronger and more productive education. If this is so, and the status of the United States among world powers would argue that it is, a large measure of gratitude should go to the principal who is effective in his public relations activities.

LEADERSHIP IN COMMUNITY ENLIGHTENMENT

Local autonomy, many believe, retards educational advancement. Whether it does or not depends upon the locality. In some sections of the country, particularly in suburban areas, a highly enlightened citizenry will demand a more progressive school than the current school authorities have yet provided or even envisioned. In such a community the program is speeded ahead in quick order, to the lasting benefit of the youth.

In communities of less enlightenment, particularly in those where ignorance seems to be cherished and where prejudice rules, any attempt to advance the school program will be met with explosive resistance. In localities where enlightenment is somewhere between zero and the average, then, the principal's problem is to enlighten the people before he can provide a program that will interpret modern culture to the youth he serves.

Here is a problem little recognized by American educators, by those in particular who prize local autonomy above enlightenment of the people. The blind may lead the blind, but should they be permitted to thwart the aspirations of youth? The apathy of the ignorant community is a problem of the educational authorities of the state rather than the local principal because he is almost completely helpless in such a situation. Little more can be said here than to state the problem as we have now done, and to suggest that a well-designed program of adult education would probably elevate the intellectual level of any community, with the exception of the Tobacco Road spots that seem utterly hopeless. Space does not permit the elaboration of an adult education program

for the enlightenment of a community even if it were within the scope of our present purpose or the competence of the writer, which it is not in either case.

MANAGER OF IT ALL

As the principal views his role in the vast program of American secondary education and as he senses its basic purpose of serving youth and society by inducting each succeeding generation into our changing culture, he feels both humble and grateful. He is humbled by the magnitude of the task and by its vital importance, both to the security of the nation and to the self-realization of each youth. And he is grateful for his opportunity to serve to the best of his ability as general manager of the intricate process.

Few if any ways of life are more significant than that of the high-school principal as he plays his role of professional leader. And there can be none more rewarding when the role is played with great skill and wisdom.

Adapting Curriculum to Individual Needs

W. B. KILLEBREW

THE individualization of instruction is the aim of every enlightened teacher and principal. The reason for this is that people grow as individuals, and only by guiding this growth do we enable each person to develop his latent powers to the maximum.

The point of origin for a program to assist individuals is the recognition of the fact that differences do exist. These include differences in intelligence, academic aggressiveness, aptitudes, interests, physical strength and coordination, social competence, financial independence, and many others. The means for measuring these characteristics are available in many forms. Standardized tests, inventories, observation techniques, and other devices may be used. These become most helpful when they are recorded on an adequate cumulative record form that is interpreted and used by a trained person. These interpretations should be available to teachers.

One of the chief uses of information collected about the pupil should be to help him to know himself and to capitalize upon his strength. Individual guidance of the pupil based upon scientific analysis of his abilities is fundamental in helping him meet his needs. Frequently a con-

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ference with his parents will result in securing their understanding and support when it would otherwise be lacking.

The choice of subjects or courses that are to be offered in the school is one that should be made only after thorough study of the community and the student population. In general, the kinds of courses to be considered are general education, industrial, agricultural, home management, business, cultural, physical development, and college preparatory. Most high schools offer some of all of these groups of courses, but the number and emphasis should vary with the needs of the students.

The grade placement of courses is another factor that is often too rigid, and at times unrealistic. For example, pupils who take two years of general mathematics and no other mathematics courses should have the second course in their senior year. At this time they have the greatest maturity, and the skills they acquire are recent enough to be functional when they take employment after graduation. Gifted students can begin the study of algebra in the eighth grade and complete the usual high-school courses in the eleventh grade. They may then take higher level mathematics in the twelfth grade and qualify for advanced standing in college. Similar adjustments can be made in many fields of study, thereby adjusting the curriculum to the needs of the student.

Principals can do much to stimulate the adjustment of the curriculum to individuals through providing materials, establishing policies, and motivating planning. The type of problems and learning exercises should be varied to meet the needs of pupils of different abilities. Exercises that require research in a good library, the use of audio-visual aids, conferences with informed people, group work, reflective thinking, experimentation, demonstrations, and reports cannot be carried on when administrative provisions are not made. The principle of minimum essentials for the slow learner, with varying degrees of enrichment for faster pupils, is one of the better devices for meeting individual needs.

The pupil's choice of courses results in much homogeneous grouping in the high school. Few of the slower pupils will be found in such courses as physics, trigonometry, and advanced foreign languages. The practical doing subjects will not attract too high a percentage of the gifted pupils. But this is not enough. In the required subjects, such as English and social studies, and in biology, algebra, plane geometry, and chemistry, further grouping should be practiced. The plan of having one class for slow pupils, one class for the gifted pupils, and several classes for those between has been found to be advantageous. The size of the school will dictate much concerning what can be done in this matter. The chief advantage of this plan is that the choice of subject matter and learning exercises can be adjusted more exactly to the needs of the group. In the slow English group, much emphasis can be given to reading, spelling, letter writing, current literature of interest, and other skills of communication that pupils can comprehend and will use. The gifted pupils can devote more time to creative writing,

poetry, critical reading of more advanced literature, research, group work, debates, and many other challenging exercises. The "average" groups should be given the typical course in English with all the advantages of heterogeneity.

Acceleration by skipping a grade is a plan that has had much success. This device is one that is most successful in the elementary school, somewhat in the junior high school, and least of all at the senior high-school level. Experience indicates that only one year of acceleration is most productive of good results. This should be done only when the pupil has high intelligence, excellent achievement, emotional maturity, and social adjustment. It is another means of locating the pupil where he will meet the most effective challenge. It is also a device for saving a year in advancing the child toward productive adulthood.

The advance placement program whereby pupils of high achievement in particular fields are given recognition in college is one with which all principals have had some contact. In most schools, this has been more or less an unplanned experience. At the present time, many are making plans to go into a program of college level instruction in the senior year with one or more subjects. Leadership in this field is by the College Entrance Examination Board. Any school that is interested in a program of this kind should request publications from this Board. This plan offers tremendous possibilities for challenging the potentialities of gifted pupils as well as promoting respect for academic achievement throughout the school system.

Curriculum Content and Crowding

GRANT W. JENSEN

SECONDARY schools in our country should be proud of the accomplishments achieved in our society. Recent years have seen the schools gear their production to the needs of a world caught in the throes of World War II. The brain power, technical skill, administrative abilities, and labor that emerged from our high schools contributed greatly to the capacity of the United States to produce and fight this war.

In 1947, secondary schools were surprised to receive information from Federal Agencies that engineers were plentiful and youth should be discouraged from selecting this profession. When the Korean conflict started, our nation found a sudden need for engineers and technicians. This trend became critical as "break throughs" developed in the basic sciences that led to new applications by technicians and engineers in industry and military pursuits. The secondary schools responded to the

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new demands of our society and by 1955 our engineering schools were forced to turn away qualified applicants because of college shortages in facilities. By December 1957, it was interesting to note that some engineers were having difficulty in gaining employment. Critics will also place the blame for this situation at the doorstep of the secondary schools!

Supported by a vast array of research in the field of education and in the separate subject fields, alert educators have noticed areas of turmoil in our secondary schools despite achievements as noted above. Harassed by booming enrollments, building programs, special tax, bond issues, and teacher shortages, superintendents and principals diverted their energies to stretching the budget. Americans must well remember that the period from 1946 to 1956 was an era when the control rested with the far right. Even the slightest change in public programs, internally or externally, was pounced upon by indignant rightists. Curriculum makers spoke but furtively of change, for the "good old days" (whatever they were) were king.

During this time, juggling took place, as driver education and driver training were forced into the curriculum by public demand. Some schools shifted the sequence of certain courses. Material on family life education and youth problems and adjustment found a place in most school programs. Despite these minor shifts, school curriculums have remained remarkably uniform in content and pattern. If criticism is to be made of secondary-school programs, it must be on the basis that changes which have occurred have been of a minor nature forcing their way into a fixed pattern.

Yet no one will deny the explosive nature of events affecting all aspects of our lives that have come as a consequence of technical changes and the resultant social complexities. Change is the only thing of which man can be certain! In what directions, then, can the secondary-school administrator work to strengthen the secondary-school curriculum?

PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IS IMPORTANT

First, the role of the principal is of supreme importance in the direction of curriculum in the secondary school. In the past few years, many indications confirm the fact that, if curriculum work is to be done, it must be focalized in the building unit. Leadership must be furnished by the principal who either must direct curriculum programs or delegate such responsibilities to a specially trained person on his staff. Since many administrators shy away from work in this field because of their other pressing administrative duties, much of the high-school curriculum has remained static. The principal must assume the obligation of directing and organizing his staff so that the goals created by the staff are reached by the execution of common policies by all faculty members. Students attend school to learn and the principal must give first priority to the tasks of directing learning activities.

This function of leadership means working with people. During the past few years it has been indicated by some that the lay public should become important members of curriculum committees. It is doubtful if this can actually be executed since few, if any, lay people are familiar with the problems involved in designing and executing complex school programs. The question might also be asked, "For what are the educational leaders paid and for what purposes is their training directed if they must run to untrained people for responses?" There is a difference between keeping people informed and in having them become members of planning and execution committees.

Principals today must also be vitally concerned with the crowding of the school curriculum and the inclusion of too many things to be done. Administrators must be firm in the statement that schools cannot teach all things that people desire. It is to be remembered that the time spent by students in high school today is the same as many years ago, while the amount of knowledge and kinds of materials have increased tremendously. The principals must become more realistic about what can be done and refuse to accept additional responsibilities in educating and training youth unless greater financial support is given by the people. To execute the desired programs, the most important elements of secondary programs must be identified. Schools cannot do all things for all students.

SUBJECT CONTENT AND PATTERNS ARE IMPORTANT

The second area of tremendous importance is that of subject content and patterns. It is in this area that the most effective work can be done immediately by the curriculum conscious principal. As an example, English teachers have been asked to teach more material in their courses each year without lengthening the time available. Not too many years ago, the whole area of mass communications was unrecognized. Today it forms a vital unit that must be taught in the English program. The principals should be alert to recommendations of the National Council of Teachers of English as they propose different approaches and identify the important elements.

Today, people are extremely conscious of the eruptions in the field of mathematics and science. Administrators must inform themselves of the developments in these fields so that their secondary-school programs are adjusted accordingly. A promising approach in the field of science—physics particularly—is that being developed by the National Science Foundation through their Physical Science Committee at Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Schools cannot afford to wait for these ideas to filter into the curriculum gradually, over a period of years, but must organize their programs soon and systematically. Action programs are needed today!

Another explosive area is that of social studies. For example, the amount of time devoted to a course in U. S. History is the same today as it was fifty years ago. Yet in his one-year course, the student in

1958 is expected to absorb all the essentials in this field. Administrators must be realistic and recognize this cannot be done. Selection of significant events must be done and these areas taught rather than continuing to give a thin survey course which becomes successively thinner as additional history is made by the human race each year.

Data in this area indicate that curriculum workers and principals must be more concerned with the selection and teaching of important knowledges, concepts, and attitudes than ever before.

STUDENT POPULATION IS IMPORTANT

The third area that concerns secondary-school administrators is the student population of today as found in our schools. In the majority of our high schools, the opportunity to learn has always been present. Those students in the upper half of our student bodies—college preparatory students—have generally succeeded in gaining good educations in the past and are receiving even better ones today. Concern is being expressed, however, about the lack of achievement and the poor attitude of those students in the lower fifty per cent of our student bodies, or the so-called general education students. Under existing conditions with limited financial support, the shortages of qualified teachers, and the general growth of social problems that affect our youth, schools have been unable to devise successful programs for this group. (Ample evidence is furnished by the forty per cent drop-out rate of secondary-school students prior to graduation.)

School administrators recognize that these students, however, will be future citizens and the dilemma can only be resolved by cooperation between the home and the school with the school placing greater emphasis on student achievement and greater responsibilities on the parents. One of our greatest challenges is to develop the curriculum that will educate most of these "resistant learners." Until this is accomplished, it is mandatory that the secondary schools tighten their requirements, both in the behavior of students and in their academic performances. School diplomas should not be issued to students on the basis of completing four years of school attendance. One educator remarked that Americans spent the first hundred years in placing all of the youngsters of school age in school, and now wonders if all of them ought to be there. (The writer is not speaking for a single-track system.)

These are but three areas where the secondary-school principal must function properly in his individual school. It is his function to see that the curriculum content is not watered down and that items of greatest value receive proper time for study. The principal to be competent in directing instructional programs must pursue subject fields in depth through in-service education. If the American high school is to continue to function, it must pass through the stage immediately of being an institution that students must attend, to an institution that is a privilege to attend. This is both the challenge and the burden for the secondary-school principals.

Obstacles to Curriculum Development

BENJAMIN L. SIMONS

WHERE, we ask, lie the areas to understanding and development of a modern curriculum that would avoid the perpetration of anachronisms upon the American people? Most secondary-school principals believe firmly in the comprehensive high school designed to serve the needs of all youth—an institution that can give a broad general education to all, first; then, under adequate guidance, give basic vocational skills and attitudes to those who seek them and appropriate intensive academic training to the college bound. The development of such a high school, in response to the demands of contemporary American life, has been the goal of the high-school principal for nearly half a century. He struggled to release it from bondage to the rigid demands and narrow aims of the college. He struggled and still struggles to build this truly “popular” institution to cope with the present and meet the needs of all American youth. As high-school attendance became increasingly universal and partially compulsory, as wave after wave of “new” students—from the middle classes, from the lower classes, from all classes of society—rolled into the high school in one of the most gigantic expansions of educational opportunity that the world has ever seen, he fought and strove to perfect the educational organization, to provide the buildings and facilities, to secure the staff and educational supplies, to build the philosophy, expand the curriculum, and inspire the instruction that would make the comprehensive high school a reality.

In this task—which will surely be recorded as one of the great achievements of history—he was not uniformly successful at all times and in all phases. While he strove to meet the new personal and social aims of the incoming thousands upon thousands, who previously had not sought to enter high school, providing new courses, materials, facilities, and methods to meet their needs, and while he wrought vigorously to provide the vital citizenship understandings and skills through common activities and programs of study in order to undergird our democratic American society, he was not unaware that the academically superior student was in some degree neglected.

The high-school principal has tried with every means at his command to care for the academically superior student. He tried grouping, he tried heavier course loads, he tried enrichment through extra assignments and special topics, he experimented with many other ways and devices and he learned much. To tell him in the present crisis that the superior student needs attention is carrying coals to Newcastle, indeed,

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for he has eaten his heart out over the situation for the past three decades. The plain facts are that the people have never yet given the money or the means to provide a program that will care for the academically superior student.

This challenge to provide adequately for the superior students is the greatest single problem facing the American public school. It is not new—it is deepened and powerfully dramatized by the life and death struggle with which we have suddenly come face to face. In this situation the high-school principal needs to retain his faith and to assert in strong and positive terms his conviction that the superior student can be provided for and given the opportunity and the incentive to develop to his fullest intellectual capacity within the framework of the comprehensive high school. Let us demand the means and proceed to do the job. To surrender this principle in the face of present critics would breach American democratic traditions and set off a chain reaction that would eventually undermine much of the best in American life.

In the exacting work of developing a curriculum, there are other obstacles in addition to the crush of numbers, the diversity of new students, and the absence of means which have been discussed thus far in connection with the problem of the superior student. There is an extensive literature dealing with curriculum development, but not much that speaks specifically of obstacles. The literature is couched in affirmative terms. Obstacles are implied and may be inferred from these positive presentations of factors and conditions that are necessary to, or aid in, curriculum development. Harold Albery has brought together what is perhaps the most comprehensive and effective statement of these factors in a mimeographed pamphlet available from the Ohio State University.¹

One predominant fact which the literature makes clear and is amply confirmed by experience is that the principal is the key to curriculum improvement within the school. A number of research studies have established beyond a shadow of a doubt that he is the biggest single factor in determining whether or not curriculum development takes place. If the principal wants organized curriculum activity within the school devoted to the study of a problem or problems for improvement of instruction, he is likely to get it even in the face of many handicaps—limited or untrained staff, lack of facilities, time, funds, and consultative services. If the principal is not interested in curriculum development and does not particularly want any organized curriculum activity, then despite the presence of many other favorable factors and circumstances, little constructive work is likely to be accomplished.

It is clear that one great obstacle to curriculum development lies within the nature of the subject itself—that there is no immediate natural stimulus from change which causes adaptation of the curriculum to new

¹ Albery, Harold, and others. *Removing the Blocks To Curriculum Improvement in the Secondary School*. Columbus: The Ohio State University, Department of Education, 1951. 62 p. Mimeographed.

conditions of life. This is amply testified to by the notorious lag between the curriculum and life, variously estimated by educational leaders as from 50 to 75 years; and there are instances of curricula, or parts of curricula, from many cultures that have persisted for hundreds and even thousands of years beyond their points of usefulness and application. The greatest difficulty is inability to connect cause and effect. Many doubted Jonas Salk's vaccine, but when in one brief year the Salk vaccinations reduced paralytic polio by eighty per cent, little was left to argument. Many secondary-school principals believe in the superiority of a core curriculum for the junior and senior high school and in the efficacy of the unit method of teaching in appropriate areas, but, after a generation or two, it may still be difficult to prove it decisively to our critics. Much of educational research is sporadic, limited in scope, uneven in quality, often impossible to duplicate. The public is more than a little suspicious of it, and even teachers often ignore it or refuse to believe it—or, more likely, are simply unaware of it at all! What a boon it would be if Congress would extend its recent action and grant the U. S. Office of Education funds sufficient for a massive program of educational research that might serve to fix beyond doubt some major bench marks of educational practice.

Of the obstacles to curriculum development that lie within the leadership, the greatest is lack of conviction that the curriculum needs revision. Unless the principal and the other status leaders who are in direct charge of the curriculum program—curriculum director, vice-principal, or curriculum council chairman—have a fervent understanding of why the curriculum needs revision and a burning desire to see it accomplished, there is always danger in the face of daily immediacy that inertia will bring the work to a grinding halt.

Other obstacles within the leadership function are failures in communication and failures in human relations. These, of course, are related. Communication must always be kept free and open, vertically from leadership to and from staff; horizontally among groups of co-workers. When communication breaks down, failures in human relations begin. The ditto and mimeograph machines should work overtime if necessary, but it should always be remembered that quality in communication is as essential as quantity. Valuable help for avoiding the obstacles inherent in these areas of communication and human relations can be found in *Curriculum Development as Re-education of the Teacher* by George Sharp² and in *Research for Curriculum Improvement*, the 1957 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.³

Obstacles to curriculum development also lie within the characteristics and competencies of the staff. Of great concern is the fact that newly

² Sharp, George. *Curriculum Development as Re-education of the Teacher*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1951. 132 pp.

³ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA. *Research for Curriculum Improvement*. 1957 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association. 1957. 350 pp.

trained teachers are rarely oriented toward curriculum development and the implications of educational research. The teacher education institutions owe an obligation to the profession to perfect this area of their own curricula. Meanwhile in-service education must provide many teachers their first contacts with this field of activity. An added complication is the fact that many teachers simply cannot read typical educational research or get any meaning from it. Desperately needed are more services for collating, summarizing, and interpreting research for the consumers—teachers active in curriculum development.

Finally, the staff personnel must come to understand—many yet fail to do so—that working on curriculum is *a way of life for the teacher*. Since change is inevitable and change is constant, the curriculum must continuously be revised. Tomorrow's problems and tomorrow's needs are sure to be different in some degree. Teachers can no more stop working on the improvement of instruction than doctors can quit working on the conquest of disease and the techniques of healing. Acceptance of this principle has come hard for teachers. They have legitimate complaints that they do not have time to do this essential work. The principal must strive to overcome this obstacle by freeing them from some other duties and improving the school organization or by extending the contractual year so they do have time. Oregon has undertaken to provide some measure of help for this problem from the state level through a Curriculum Improvement Fund Law. Through this law, the school district, under an approved Curriculum Improvement Plan, may receive reimbursement from state funds for the costs of substitute teachers employed to enable regular teachers to work on curriculum improvement, or for payment to regular teachers for such work in addition to regular duties or after the end of their contract year.

Guidelines and Ground Rules for a Curriculum Committee

WILLIAM H. CONE
JOE B. PEYTON

ORGANIZATION of a curriculum committee is one step some principals may be interested in taking to meet the curriculum leadership challenge. Unless a principal is confident that his own beliefs about how to work in curriculum with fellow staff members will allow him to maintain certain attitudes and relationships, it is probably better that no effort to establish a curriculum committee be made.

We feel that to work in a satisfying manner to himself and his staff with a curriculum committee, as we undertake to describe it here, a principal must hold certain educational values:

1. Be able to see his own role in curriculum improvement equal, and equal only, to that of other staff members; be able to accept ideas from any staff members as equal to his own before the curriculum committee.
2. Believe that ideas are most valuable to school progress only after they have undergone the metamorphosis of group discussion.
3. Believe that the classroom teacher, fresh from *direct* contact with students, brings a point of view to curriculum planning that is essential if the best experiences are to be provided for the education of youth.
4. Believe that the successful fusion of the theoretical and the practical results best from continuous (or at least frequent) exposure of both elements within a working group.
5. Be willing to give the curriculum committee his full sanction and cooperation; his time in participation and discussion; his leadership skills in organization and operation.
6. Be willing to see any course offering or practice, even his own practices, questioned, studied, and changed if findings justify it.

The principal who plans to organize a curriculum committee or rejuvenate one already present in name but serving no vital purpose will want to look at several general conditions in his school before he acts. Some schools are small enough to operate as a committee of the whole. Here further organization might be wasteful of staff energy. There must be staff faith in dynamic committee action and its contributions to the school program. A committee must be given more than token responsibility. There must be present in the staff a concern for cur-

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riculum improvement. The total staff must be willing *to learn* to study the curriculum by looking at present practices, reviewing current research, modifying local school aims, and implementing new aims in school-day practices.

ORGANIZATION OF CURRICULUM COMMITTEE

The decision to organize a curriculum committee should be made by the total school staff after the above criteria of conditions have been discussed and understood by everyone. Much time is needed to internalize these concepts lying behind successful operation.

When organization occurs, it should be by a definite decision of the total staff. The committee functions as an agency of the total staff, takes its general direction from the total staff, and reports its recommendations to the total staff. In regular session, the total staff considers business brought before it by the curriculum committee. It must be emphasized that the committee is not a law unto itself, nor is it a tool to be used to advantage by any one person or sub-group in the faculty.

Organization of the curriculum committee should include an understanding that its general operation will be reviewed and evaluated at least annually. The total staff will be able at intervals to redirect the committee's efforts along lines of greatest usefulness if this seems advisable. The pre-school period when teachers come to work without pupils present is a desirable time for evaluation and orientation for the year ahead. If a pre-school period is not available, a time should be provided during the first weeks of school to refresh the committee and build staff interest in its work.

Meetings of the curriculum committee should be held on regularly scheduled dates. The type curriculum service rendered by a dynamic committee requires the best thinking of which its members are capable. For this reason, meetings of the group should be held during the school day, preferably in the morning. A teacher who has taught heavy classes during the day cannot be expected to come to a curriculum discussion on his own time after school hours all fired up and ready to think creatively for the good of the order. He has "had it" for the day!

Committee meetings should be held in a place free from interruptions and the noises connected with various school activities. The cafeteria has been used satisfactorily in many places. Casualness of atmosphere is essential. A small group works well around a table. To have coffee ready at a morning meeting makes a start that puts everyone at his best.

Representation on the committee should be made up in so far as possible of volunteers. All staff interest groups, subject matter areas, and departments should be represented, along with the administration. Special service functions such as registration and guidance should be regularly represented. The principal should be a member of the committee and bring to it his understandings, skills, prestige, and any problems which have overtones for curriculum.

There should be representation from the student body. Secondary schools have many students capable of intelligent discussion in small group meetings where the most serious curriculum matters are under consideration. At least one student member should be on the committee to hear and be heard as topics and ideas emerge. Many sad mistakes in curriculum decisions could have been averted if this vital representative had been present. The thought of student representation scares many teachers and not a few principals! It *still* should be had, however.

Still more frightening to many of us school people is the thought of parent representation on a curriculum committee. Frightening or not, the most complete perception of what is good for teenage youngsters cannot be had until a non-teaching parent is present to make his contribution to the discussion.

A regular member of the school curriculum committee should be on the system-wide curriculum council if such a group exists. Regular reports from this larger group should be heard, and local school curriculum efforts should have their influences on system-wide planning, as well as take directions from decisions of the larger group.

Curriculum specialists from the local system, the state department of education, or college or university should be invited to committee meetings as matters under consideration relate. Central office administrative personnel, local government officials, and medical service representatives should be requested to attend when needed.

The smaller school has a distinct advantage with a correspondingly small curriculum committee. Research in group dynamics indicates that, when more than twelve or so people meet, the group begins to be too large for most efficient discussion and study. Best results seem to appear when numbers are held to eight or so. In larger schools, where a representative committee is quite likely to run to fifteen or more members, the need for special attention to conduct of meetings is indicated and might warrant using a portion of a regular meeting for discussions by sub-groups with a re-assembling of the total committee for comparisons of reports and agreement on next steps. Sub-group study committees are used to good advantage where membership is large.

Once a person has served creatively for a year on a productive curriculum committee, he becomes a valuable asset to its further productiveness. For that reason turnover in the group should be controlled so that there are always experienced members to help the new group carry on the work.

RESPONSIBLE POSITIONS

The curriculum committee will want to place certain key responsibilities on some of its members. A temporary chairman and recorder might well be selected with a future date set for agreement on permanent service positions. The whole subject of organization, ways of group work, and purposes of the committee might use the first meeting or two. In the meantime, people are becoming acquainted with each

other and will sense who in the group can serve best in various positions of responsibility.

The person selected as permanent chairman should be skilled in group discussion methods and be a well-adjusted personality. He should accept himself and fellow committee members, and be accepted by them. It is helpful if he has been a member of the staff for several years and is familiar with the on-going stream of school affairs. The principal might be chosen as chairman. In this event, he must guard against the very human tendency of staff members to lean on him for too much authoritative support. He must likewise guard against the equally human tendency to use his status position in subtle ways that have a detrimental effect on group work over a period of time. It is probably better if the principal does not serve as chairman if there is some other person on the committee who can do a comparable job.

The secretary is a vitally important person in the group. This person must keep accurate and detailed records of dates, topics, and group decisions. He must be able to have "the record" in case of doubt on matters. Frustrating disagreement can come when perceptions on past actions differ. The secretary should work closely with the chairman in notifying members of meetings. Written notices to members twenty-four hours or more before the time of meeting help busy staff members make preparations for attendance.

A need develops over a period of time for a member to act as an "historian." Members and staff realize that they tend to lose overall perspective of how the curriculum has developed and what the high points have been. Such a record gives them a feeling of well-being as sound changes decided upon and carried out can be recalled in a non-detailed way. This is important for good morale.

WAYS OF WORK

Ideas are the life blood of curriculum improvement. An idea might come from a representative, a non-representative staff member, research findings, or curriculum specialists. The important fact is that it be accepted, be seen as worthy of discussion either at present or later. People like to see their ideas accepted, at least tentatively, even if the idea is not likely to be put into action. An idea is accepted, it then becomes the property of the entire group. It is desirable to keep this in mind in discussion and refrain from referring to it as "George's" or "Mary's" idea. It has simply become "our" property.

An idea or concept must usually undergo several steps of a change process before it fits a particular school's curriculum need. First it is presented and accepted, then it is discussed. If it does not appear worthy of "our" further attention, it is not thrown bodily from the committee meeting. It is just shelved, or given a lower value at the moment. It may come up for another look when conditions change if it has not been completely discarded from the thinking of the group.

If an idea seems to have relevance for present curriculum needs, it is weighed more carefully, looked at in light of research, looked at in terms of its implications for the school if accepted as part of curriculum policy. If "our" certainty warrants it, "we" recommend its adoption by the total staff. If we are not *that* sure, we bring it to the staff for general consideration. Here an idea's possibilities for our use might be strengthened. On the other hand, enthusiasm might be low. It is essential under any circumstances that an idea raised by the committee be accepted and discussed by the faculty. This poses a real problem in a large staff. It might be necessary to bring committee ideas to the attention of the faculty in written form well before the meeting. This is always desirable since informal discussion among teaching personnel acquaints everyone with the proposal and creates a motivation to thorough discussion in formal staff meetings. It is essential that every staff member be able to express any feeling he has relative to a committee proposal. This is seldom possible if the staff is larger than a dozen. Breaking the large group into smaller ones for a discussion session is a must at this point. Arrangements do not have to be elaborate. No one has to leave the room. It may mean no more than neighbors turning to each other for informal discussion. Interaction just needs to be stepped up. *Everyone* just needs to "say" and *hear others say*. The small groups are recalled to full staff posture and then summaries of people's thinking are brought before everyone. Now people with real feelings on the subject will reveal themselves.

Some proposals will be enthusiastically accepted without modification, those that have been carefully studied in advance by the curriculum committee. Others will be accepted after slight modification. Still others will go back to the committee for further research and refinement. The committee has served its purpose in any event.

Agreement on proposals before the committee comes after an idea has been weighed in light of school philosophy, present facts, and feelings, after a period of time has passed and after educational research findings have been applied to it.

Some recommendations from departments or other groups represented may have been so well thought out that little committee work is needed. Few matters, however, become routine to be acted upon quickly. It is not desirable that the curriculum committee divide itself by formal vote; as long as there is any objection to a proposal in the committee, either more time or more facts are needed.

COMMITTEE POTENTIAL

By the time the committee has functioned for over a year, it can become a wellspring of inspiration and ideas on various problems or needs of a school. Specific duties assumed, upon direction of the faculty, are such matters as:

1. Formulation of a core of policies on curriculum
2. Planning the course of study
3. Publication of a course-of-study bulletin and items related to implementation for student and teacher use
4. Formulation of policies relative to graduation requirements, promotion, credit, *etc.* for staff consideration
5. Study of school laws
6. Continuous study of current research and curriculum trends
7. Recommendations for specific changes, deletions, additions, *etc.* in the course of study as result of continuous review
8. Liaison with any system-wide curriculum effort.

Broader and more subtle potentialities develop as a result of the committee's continuous attack upon specific duties. Possibilities that can be realized are:

1. Leadership in evolving a broader and fuller curriculum; undertaking a long-range improvement program
2. Initiation of ideas for experimental program or project
3. Pointing up of the need for emphasis in other matters to coordinate with the work of the committee (example might be essential needs in guidance program)
4. Becoming a focus of pride and concern of the entire faculty. The work affects all so vitally that a group with high morale can become the core of the staff's morale.
5. Sensing any imbalance or maladjustment in curriculum as it occurs
6. Leadership in formulating a working school philosophy.

The last item is the most telling of the potentialities. The very nature of the committee's pursuits promotes keeping a school philosophy up to date, active, realistic, and before the staff as a whole. Committee work provides the sustained opportunity for teachers to contribute to the school philosophy, gearing it to action in the classroom. Direct contributions of teachers to school philosophy vitalizes the sharing of goals and makes the work toward expected outcomes more *consistent* on the scene of action.

Coordinating the Services To Support Good Teaching

ALEXANDER FRAZIER

THE presence of many professional services that support or supplement the work of the teacher in the classroom is characteristic of the modern high school. Counselors, home visitors, nurses, librarians, audio-visual coordinators, remedial reading teachers, and assistant principals with responsibility for instructional development are among those who provide such services. In addition, larger systems can draw upon still other personnel through a central office.

Supporting services are provided because their proper functioning can increase the effectiveness of teaching. How well they function and, consequently, how much they help depends in large part on the principal.

COORDINATION IS THE KEY

As principals are well aware, the provision of a needed service does not guarantee that it will be properly or fully utilized. Yet the principal is a busy man indeed; and, when he has succeeded finally in securing, let us say, a full-time remedial reading specialist or audio-visual co-ordinator, he may feel that he has performed the major task. He may sometimes feel like saying, it is up to the new person himself to develop and promote his program. As the number of such specialists has increased, some principals may have concluded that responsibility for developing each service had to be pretty well delegated. After all, a specialist should be expected to know what needs to be done—and to go ahead and do it. Yet, when we have time to reflect upon it, we are all in agreement that service personnel cannot function adequately on their own. They are employed not each to build a kingdom, but to relate to and serve the general purposes of the school. They must have the help and guidance of the principal to function effectively.

The alert principal recognizes that he must be more than a good provider of services. He must insure that these services contribute as fully as they can to the welfare of students. Active leadership in coordinating the services with the teaching that they are intended to support is the answer.

The principal's role in the coordination of supporting services may be discussed in terms of (1) developing standards for use of each service on the part of teachers, (2) fostering the efforts of service personnel to function at a professional level, and (3) securing unity of purpose among services and with the teaching staff.

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DEFINING THE NEED FOR SERVICE

Supporting services are provided presumably because they will increase the effectiveness of teaching. Yet the relationship of various services to teaching is not always apparent. Some teachers will need help in understanding the value of supporting services and how to make good use of them.

The need for such help is well recognized when we are thinking about beginning teachers. Our orientation sessions usually include a word or two about each of the services available. We may plan a series of meetings to familiarize newcomers with counseling services, library and audio-visual resources, the work of the home visitor, and so on.

We know that merely becoming acquainted with resources is not enough. To the extent that we have time, we work with new teachers on using the available services to make instruction more effective. We try to develop standards of use. With newcomers, again, we find it easy to do. However, defining the need and building standards of use with our total staff is not so easy. Leadership here is more than a matter of a single shot or the short term. It involves making available to teachers many opportunities to test the value of supporting services. What are some of the ways we have learned as principals to help teachers find out how much these services can contribute to the success of their teaching?

Reviewing the Service

Periodic review and evaluation of a service is one familiar way to improve its use. Most services keep records that can yield facts for study by teachers. Looking together at the book circulation figures or those on the use of the library by teachers-with-classes may lead to generalizations that will bolster the intentions of the staff to keep the library central to teaching.

Re-defining the values of the service can be accomplished in a number of ways. Criteria of use for the various services are available for group review from a number of standard sources. Articles in current educational journals also deal with best practices. A supervisor or consultant may be invited in to help look at the situation.

These exercises in self-criticism need to be maintained and sharpened if the school is to deepen its dedication to full use of supporting services. Review and evaluation, participated in by all concerned, provide the simplest and perhaps the most effective means of coordination.

Experimenting To Improve Use

Getting commitments from teachers to try out new ways of making use of a service is another recognized avenue to developing higher standards of use. A school-wide committee may undertake to promote a greater use of available test results. Individual teachers, working with the committee, may agree to see what difference it makes in their teaching when they gain more information about students.

A department may decide to experiment in trying out pieces of audio-visual equipment which the members have not thus far made much use of in their classrooms. Teachers then organize the trying out of opaque projectors, tape recorders, and so forth in terms of their own purposes—and make their own evaluation.

Individual teachers may volunteer to work as a study group with the head counselor or psychologist to find out what a greater understanding of the background of problem learners might do to increase the effectiveness of their teaching. Part of their study might include trying out new ways of working with some of their less successful students.

Whether pursued through school-wide committees, through departments, or with individual teachers, the attempt to have new and broader ways of using supporting services tried out will result in raising the sights. Consequently, encouraging experimentation is an important function of coordination.

Sharing Successes

A third way of developing standards for better use of each service is to provide opportunities for successful uses to be shared. A faculty meeting can be devoted to reports on how the physical education department now has a better program resulting from cooperation with the nursing service. Bulletins or leaflets can highlight the use of the library by the social studies department or the value of the home visitor's study being made for the vocational department of drop-outs from that program. A display board in the principal's office may be used to show how a teacher in foreign language has been using his bulletin board in building a list of new vocabulary terms for class review.

The principal may arrange for visitation among science teachers to help spread the work being developed by two members of the department who have served on a district-wide committee on new laboratory research experiences, to which a neighboring college has provided consultant services. Sharing successes helps to develop higher standards of use and thus is one of the well-defined roads to better coordination. The first task of pulling together the services that support good teaching is to develop and extend the standards of use. Ways through which principals can perform this task include reviewing and evaluating each service, trying out new approaches to it, and sharing news of better uses.

HELPING SERVICE PERSONNEL FUNCTION PROFESSIONALLY

Another problem of coordination is to provide whatever is needed to help service personnel function at a professional level. Sometimes very able people are hampered in their work because they have not succeeded in freeing themselves of the routine aspects of their jobs or rising above the many clerical duties that may be involved. The principal not only is the provider of services and the person who helps teachers set their sights higher in terms of the use; he must also make sure that the

specialists involved have an opportunity to be of the greatest possible service.

Providing Needed Clerical Help

Most of the supporting services involve considerable record keeping. Tests must be ordered, books cataloged, health examination cards filled out and filed, supply lists drawn up for remedial reading materials, and so on. These jobs are essential to the service but, in themselves, are time consuming. For a professionally trained individual to be tied down to such detail is great waste of resources.

Principals need to plan for the addition of clerical help at the same time they are thinking of added supporting services. Sometimes such help can be secured by reorganizing existing staff to share what is already available. In some cases, it means adding an extra clerk or two. Student aid, if consonant with the philosophy of the school, may be provided. At any rate, a professional person who spends a large proportion of his time at routine sub-professional duties is being poorly employed.

Evaluating Use of Time

One of the necessary acts of coordination is to review regularly the use of the service person's time. Routine has a certain attraction for some people; even the provision of needed clerical assistance may not guarantee that it will be well used. Each involves some such tasks that require a certain amount of expertness or acquaintance with the field. The training of clerical help to provide relief may need to be pointed out as essential.

Also the service person may need considerable help in learning how to operate at a fully professional level. Leadership skills develop slowly. Evaluation of the use of time helps to make this clear.

Becoming Partners in Leadership

The most important role of the principal in helping the service person function professionally is to establish a full partnership in leadership. The principal needs to know enough about what the service involves and what the person representing it can and should do for teachers so that he can interpret all this to the total staff. As the official leader, the principal works with teachers to establish standards of use. These standards will not be higher for the school than the principal's understanding of them.

However, when he succeeds in establishing, with service personnel, the needed kind of partnership, he then sees many ways in which to promote the professional function of his specialized personnel. Thus, by providing needed clerical help, keeping the use of time under continuous development, and establishing leadership, the principal performs one of the major acts of coordination.

SECURING UNITY OF PURPOSE AMONG SERVICES AND STAFF

Finally, the principal has the task of developing unity of purpose among the supporting services and with the teaching staff. These services, in established schools, are added one at a time as new needs are defined. Therefore, the new personnel are sometimes charged with the expansion of a type of service formerly carried on by another service or department in the school. In such instances, the possibility of over-lap, competition, or general confusion is always present.

More important even than this possibility is the need to coordinate the services to insure maximum impact on problems of learning. Unless the nurse, counselors, and home visitors, for example, are in continuous communication about students, each service is less effective than it otherwise would be. Personnel provided in the instructional materials fields who do not work closely together have less effectiveness than they should. Similarly, the remedial specialist does not function in Room 205 alone.

Principals have found many ways to develop unity among services and with teachers. If there is a council of department chairmen, certainly the heads of special services should meet with the group. Sometimes the principal works with his supporting services as a group to define purposes and provide for shared problem-solving. The personnel attached to each service should be involved in all of the many types of committee work and staff planning found in the modern high school.

Practically speaking, the principal who sees the need for achieving unity of purpose among supporting services and with his teachers will see this need as merely a part of the greater urgency of having the total staff working together in a continuous, cooperative program of self-improvement. The roads to this objective are many.

In summary, the coordination of the supporting services that undergird good teaching is basically a function of local administration and part of the attempt good principals make to involve the total staff in a program of planned improvement. It involves setting standards high for all, helping service personnel function professionally, and securing unity of purpose among them with the teaching staff.

Organizing for Curriculum Study

LEON S. WASKIN

A NUMBER of factors help determine the success or failure of any program of curriculum study. One of the more important factors is the kind of structure or organization that is developed to facilitate such study. Over the years, a variety of plans have been used. Not all of these are equally effective. This article will confine itself to the listing of some criteria for the evaluation of any organizational pattern and a description of some of the organizational patterns more frequently used by local school systems.

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERN

Any pattern will need to be adapted to local conditions. Nevertheless, there are certain general principles or criteria which can help a local school system decide the effectiveness of its existing or proposed organizational structure for curriculum study. The following principles were developed as an outgrowth of the Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum:

1. Does the pattern foster communication among the school staff, including the administration?
2. Does it stimulate cooperative planning?
3. Does it encourage follow-through and implementation in the classroom and the school?
4. Does it encourage development and provide opportunity for positive, creative leadership activities?
5. Does it help develop cohesiveness, unity, and continuing working inter-relationship among the entire staff?
6. Does it encourage realistic evaluation in terms of basic educational philosophy and objectives?
7. Does it provide for meaningful involvement of students, parents and other community representatives?¹

Thoughtful application of principles such as these should help any school system appraise either its existing organizational pattern or the organizational patterns described below.

SOME CURRENT TYPES OF STAFF ORGANIZATION

All of the patterns described here either are or have been used in a number of school systems. They are not necessarily listed either in the order of frequency or in the order of preference.

¹ Boot, R., Faunce, R. C., Isbister, R., and Waskin, L. S., *Organization of School Staff for Evaluation*. Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum. 1950. (Out of print).

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1. *Departmental Committees*

Typical of these are committees appointed from among the staff along subject matter lines. In this pattern, the English committee studies the problems of English curriculum; the mathematics committee studies the problems of mathematics; and so forth. The pattern has the advantage of bringing together teachers who usually have a pretty thorough knowledge of their subject field. One of its more obvious weaknesses is that, by itself, such a pattern provides little opportunity for integration among departments and for intercommunication among those teaching in different subject fields.

2. *Organization Around General Curriculum Problems*

In this pattern, committees are organized around certain basic curriculum problems without regard to subject matter lines. For example, there may be a committee concerned with the over-all problem of health education. There may be another committee concerned with the problem of guidance. Still another committee might study the problems of education for citizenship. Usually these problem committees are likely to be responsible for formulating general over-all purposes in their selected areas of work, for evaluating the effectiveness of the existing program with respect to these areas, and for proposing suggestions for program improvement in both a vertical and horizontal sense and crossing grade level and departmental lines as the need may be.

3. *Grade Level Committees*

In this pattern, all the teachers in a given grade meet to consider common problems and to develop programs in harmony with the total faculty policies developed by more general committees and adopted by the faculty. Often these grade-level committees consist of teachers who work with the same pupils during the day. It is important that channels of communication be kept open between one grade-level committee and the others so that a continuous program of general education can be developed vertically as well as by grade levels. The grade-level committee is perhaps most useful in the junior and senior high school where departmental organization prevails. In elementary schools with self-contained classrooms, such committees have sometimes been organized across several grade levels producing an early elementary group, a later elementary group, and so forth.

4. *Teacher Teams*

Another kind of curriculum committee consists of a team of teachers either working on the same grade level or from various grades but with the same general assignment. For example, the teachers in a building in which the program is organized mainly along departmental lines may form a core curriculum team in which members from several departments would be involved. Another type of team is that in which teachers who have the same group of students organize and meet periodically. Still another kind of team may develop when a number of teachers participate

in a small workshop or conference and then continue to work together throughout the year on the problem which initially caused them to attend the workshop or conference.

5. *Building Committees*

In larger school systems, two trends in organizational pattern for curriculum study and modification have developed. In one, various committees to deal with different aspects of curriculum may be appointed on a system-wide basis. There may or may not be representatives on any one of the committees from all of the buildings in the school system. In the second, while system-wide committees may operate, they are supplemented by the establishment of building committees which are concerned mainly with the offerings of the individual school and/or with the implementation of policies or recommendations developed by system-wide committees. As in all patterns, there is a considerable need in this one for communication among the various committee groups and the constituents whom they represent.

6. *Faculty as a Whole*

In smaller schools, one of the most commonly found organizational patterns for curriculum study is the entire faculty as a unit. In such a pattern, the problem of communication is obviously simplified. Specific assignments are usually carried out by the individual teacher or occasionally small committees of two or three appointed on an *ad hoc* basis.

7. *The Pre-School Conference*

The pre-school conference can be regarded not only as a time for the staff to meet to discuss curriculum problems but, in some cases, it can be regarded also as a type of staff organization. Some school systems have all or part of the staff report and come on payroll a week or more before classes begin. During this pre-school period, the staff, either as a whole or through committees, works on curriculum problems. If committees are used, they may or may not continue to operate throughout the year.

8. *Summer Committees*

Recently school systems that have not thought it feasible to employ the entire teaching staff on a twelve-month basis have kept selected teachers on the payroll through the summer months and have organized them into curriculum committees that, during the summer, make studies and prepare recommendations to be considered by the total faculty in the fall. Such teachers are usually selected from volunteers who desire summer employment and have a genuine interest in curriculum study.

Perhaps one other kind of organizational pattern for curriculum study and revision should be mentioned even though it does not provide for real staff participation. This might be called the pattern of curriculum study and revision by the administrator—either the principal or the superintendent. Usually it is found in the very small school system. In this pattern, the proposed curriculum modifications are the “brain child”

of the administrator and are put into operation through administrative fiat. The deficiencies in this pattern are too obvious to need comment.

AN EXAMPLE OF EFFECTIVE STAFF ORGANIZATION

As might be expected, many school systems have not relied upon any one of the patterns described above, but have developed combinations of these in order to provide for fuller participation and more effective study of the many aspects of curriculum problems. One such combination pattern has been used in Michigan by the Center Line Public Schools. At the time the plan was put into operation, the staff consisted of 52 teachers working in 6 different buildings including the high school. The plan was developed cooperatively by the staff, the administration, and the board of education on a shared-time basis. The teachers contributed some of their time and the school contributed an equal amount. School schedules were arranged so that pupils were dismissed every Tuesday afternoon at 2:30 o'clock and a block of time from 2:45 to 4:30 P.M. was set aside for staff meetings. The first Tuesday of each month was used for general staff meetings. These general meetings were planned by a committee of teachers representing the building staffs and dealt with such problems as mental health, the extended school year, school-community relations, and evaluation. The second Tuesday of each month was given over to staff meetings in the various buildings, and instructional problems pertinent to the individual buildings were given careful attention. On the third Tuesday of each month, the primary, intermediate, and high-school teachers met in separate groups. The fourth Tuesday of the month was set aside for committee meetings which cut across building and grade-level groups. Evaluation has been a continuous part of this process; and the values from this working arrangement accruing to the classroom, the staff, and the community have been periodically and systematically examined. This type of organization appears to develop among teachers a shared responsibility for the total program and an appreciation of the contributions that all are making toward instructional improvement. It has the added advantage that meetings are not held solely during the so-called free time of teachers.

Patterns of organization, in and of themselves, do not assure the effectiveness of a local program of curriculum study and improvement. In fact in the minds of the Rickovers and others who do not understand the uniqueness and fundamental strength of the decentralized American system of public education, they may appear to be completely unnecessary. Furthermore, even the best organizational plans will mean nothing unless the staff is genuinely convinced that the administration and the board of education are sincerely concerned about the cooperative approach to program improvement. The administrator has a tremendously important leadership role to play in this process. "The attitudes and actions of the administrator are constantly under examination and open to question. Any evidence on his part of lack of faith in group planning

will give rise to a skepticism which will permeate the whole atmosphere and destroy without warning the spirit of cooperation. For example, if the staff surmises that the administrator will use the findings of the evaluation to prove something which he may use later in a punitive way against one or more of their peers, their participation will not be sincere nor will it contribute much to the improvement of the program"² At the same time, there can be no meaningful and lasting curriculum improvement unless an organization is developed that will provide opportunity for each member of the staff, for the student and the community to have a responsible part in the process. Techniques for community and student involvement have not been discussed in this article. Neither has the problem of the use of consultants from outside the community been considered here. Both these are important facets of local curriculum study programs and should not be overlooked when a school system organizes its resources to improve the quality of its instructional program.

² *Ibid*

Sociological and Psychological Curriculum Foundations

DENTON L. COOK

"What is a good high-school education? A meaningless question to my mind, unless you specify the pupil, his environment, his capacities, and his ambitions.—JAMES BRYANT CONANT

DR. CONANT'S statement fully implies that education is a sociological as well as a psychological process. Granting this, any valid curriculum must be fully considerate of what we know about the behavioral sciences. The fact that secondary-school education has never been brought fully into line with the realities of what we know about youth and their environment is the concern of secondary-school people. It is in the recognition of these realities that we shall find the direction to authentic educational experiences. The task is not easy and the course is not fully charted.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL BASIS FOR THE CURRICULUM

Most of our secondary school practices are dominated by our concepts of a stereotyped and a static society, despite the fact that our social order has undergone more change in the past few decades than all of

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mankind's previously recorded history. These changes have taken place so rapidly that established values have become unbalanced before new judgments could be formulated. During these years, our society has changed from an independent "laissez faire" way of life to one of almost complete interdependence.

1. *The Recognition of the Changes in Our Larger Society*

Among the sociological changes which must be considered in curriculum construction are the following:

a. Basic changes have taken place in family life. For instance, the family has ceased to be a largely self-sufficient unit and youth no longer works beside his parents. As we would expect, the stabilizing values of the home have become challenged.

b. Science and technology have created new patterns of social life. Thus, distance today is a matter of time rather than miles. Leisure and new standards of living have been brought about by machines. At the same time, these machines create new job opportunities and cause old ones to go out of existence. Labor and even the still recognized professional skills have become greatly specialized. New discoveries and technics in the science of medicine have increased man's life span immeasurably, but, paradoxically, while this is taking place, technology puts a premium upon his early retirement.

c. Our society, once predominately rural, is now described as largely urban. If our social issues appear to have increased in depth as well as intensity, it is largely because new social classes and special interest groups created by the rural-urban shift are exercising a divisive influence upon our outlook.

d. The populations of our nation and of other countries are increasing rapidly. It is predicted that, at the present rates of increase, the world's population may double to 5.5 billion within the next fifty years. Our own national population may increase from 170 million at present to 240 million by 1975. Such increases in the population will create more intense demands upon the earth's resources.

e. There is wide social unrest in many lands. Colonial empires have been disestablished. A large part of the earth's population is undertaking autonomy for the first time. Their quests for freedom and equality are faltering and ideological conflicts are serious threats to world peace.

The implications of these changes to education are many. The problem is further complicated by the fact that change is both constant and spiraling. Yet, it is in the school that society hopes to find its reconciling force.

2. *The Recognition of the Principles of a Democratic Faith*

The sociological focus of the curriculum in a democracy must be upon both the individual and the state. This is a more difficult problem than in a totalitarian nation where concern for the welfare of the state is the major emphasis. In America, the purposes of secondary-school educa-

tion must conform with the concepts of a democratic society. Practices must be judged in terms of democratic values. In democratic America, we profess to believe these unchanging social ideals:

a. Every human being is of infinite worth and dignity. The goals of democracy are best achieved through the development of the individual citizens.

b. A human being realizes his highest development only when he takes on responsibility for the common welfare as well as for his individual welfare.

c. Intelligence and reason are basic to the solution of the problems affecting mankind. The use of the scientific method in the seeing and solving of problems demands skill and habits of thought in the individual citizen.

d. In a democratic society it is necessary: (1) to provide practice and experience in the democratic way of living, and (2) to provide for the greatest development of the individual in accordance with his abilities, interests, and needs.

3. *The Recognition of the Responsibilities of Education to a Democratic Society*

Education has the purposes of preserving the ideals of a society and of evaluating the new behavior patterns as society changes. John Ruskin implied the need of value judgments in his often quoted statement, "Education does not mean teaching people what they do not know; it means teaching them to behave as they do not behave."

The high-school curriculum which would keep alive our social ideals must be a constantly evolving set of experiences. It must change as conditions and society change. It would have two major purposes:

a. To provide youth with the accepted cultural experiences we have found to be worth while and enduring. The cultural heritage is not transmitted for its own sake, but as it bears on present living "here and now."

b. It would test and evaluate new experiences consonant with our democratic ideals. Since society is never static, emerging social realities must be evaluated in terms of new attitudes and behavior patterns.

4. *The Recognition of the Specific Purposes of Secondary Education*

The two major purposes of education must be translated into specifics to meet the needs of youth and of our society. This has been done adequately by many individuals and by various organizations. The secondary-school curriculum should prepare adolescents by providing for:

a. The development and maintenance of good mental and physical health

b. A command of the fundamentals

c. The acquisition of salable skills and the ability to produce and consume in an intelligent manner

- d. An understanding of the rights and duties of a citizen in a democracy
- e. Wholesome family relationships and home life
- f. An appreciation of the scientific attitude in the establishment of generalizations and judgments
- g. Increasingly satisfying human relationships
- h. The ability to use leisure time well.

5. *The Recognition of the Local Community Influences and Needs*

While there has been a trend toward greater state and national participation in the program of the secondary school, the fact remains the high school is still largely a "home-owned" institution. The curriculum of the high school should, therefore, focus largely upon the local community and its needs.

To provide authentic education, the school must know well the young people and the community it is to serve. The approximately one thousand hours per year youth spends in school is a relatively small part of their experiences. Students bring to school with them what they are. No school can adequately administer to the needs of its students and community and not be aware of the conditions influencing the individual and the group. Some characteristics of a community and its youth which should be considered in curriculum planning include:

- a. The age-grade distribution of youth
- b. The mental ability and aptitudes of youth
- c. The school drop-outs and causes
- d. The educational and occupational intentions of youth
- e. The status of graduates of the school
- f. The home conditions of youth
- g. The health conditions in the community
- h. The recreational facilities and leisure time habits of youth
- i. The mobility and nativity of the population
- j. The occupational status of adults
- k. The educational status of adults
- l. The financial resources of the community
- m. Other agencies which influence education.

The methodology of such research is well treated in the works of M. M. Chambers, Howard Bell, Joanna C. Colcord, Edward G. Olsen, Edward Thorndike, and others. The decennial tracts of the United States Census furnish much documentary evidence of the general welfare of our political subdivisions.

6. *The Recognition of the Nature of Youth.*

Good education does not try to change the nature of adolescence. It is geared to the way young people may be expected to react. Successful curricular experiences are appreciative of the growth process.

Today's high-school age group is at a disadvantage. Our current society is an adult society. The earlier societies of yesteryear were

primarily youth societies. Adult status was achieved much earlier in life than it is in our present culture. Despite this fact, the social and psychological urges of the adolescent today are as fundamental as they were when Alexander the Great became king of Macedon at age twenty. Some of the characteristics of youth which must be recognized in the secondary-school curriculum are:

a. Youth are concerned with their physical development. In a society which sets a premium upon one type of physique as compared to another, young people are anxious to conform.

b. Youth are desirous of being accepted favorably by other people. They are particularly concerned about status with their peers.

c. Youth are in need of a sense of security. Conditions they can count upon are important. No age group is more anxious to conform to acceptable and established codes of behavior than are adolescents.

d. Youth need "to be somebody." They desire a feeling of accomplishment. It is a characteristic of this age group to want to be recognized in one way or another.

e. Youth need to acquire self-confidence and a system of values. They need to experience successes as well as failures.

f. Youth need to acquire adult and economic status. Achieving independence from family ties must be a gradual but a definite process.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS FOR THE CURRICULUM

The experiences offered through the secondary-school curriculum should be based on sound psychological principles of how learning takes place. No curriculum has value unless it results in the strengthening of human behavior. The following six important principles of how learning takes place are widely accepted and should be recognized in the experiences provided by the curriculum:

1. *Learning Should Be Adjusted to Individual Variations.*

Youth vary in their rate of maturation. Although they follow essentially the same sequence of growth, they may vary several years in the time they pass through this sequence. Girls mature as much as two years earlier than boys do. As much as six years of difference in ability and achievement rates at the same chronological age is not uncommon. These differences must be taken into account. The curricular experiences offered each pupil must begin at the level where he is and be consistent with his abilities, interests, and needs.

2. *The Learner Should Be Interested if He Is To Learn.*

It is highly doubtful whether a pupil learns very much, if anything, at tasks or studies in which no interest has been stimulated or which do not answer a felt need. Learning activities must reflect the purposes of the learner and represent intrinsic benefits to him. Only as these purposes are being resolved will he undertake activities above and beyond those proposed by the teacher. Satisfactions for the learner should be gained "here and now" rather than promised in the distant future.

3. *Learning Should Be Meaningful.*

Youth learns only that which he can understand—things into which he gains an insight. All learning is related to previous learning. This indicates that curriculum materials should be designed for the maturity and experience levels of the various learners. The problem that is at once intelligible to one pupil, because of his background of experiences and intelligence, may be merely an unintelligible routine memorization to another. In the first instance, authentic learning can take place; in the second, a pattern for failure has been set. Learning and understanding are reciprocal.

4. *Youth Learn Best What They Experience.*

Learning, whether it be physical, emotional, intellectual, or social, is an active process. The aroused and directed will of the pupil is necessary for authentic learning to take place. Only as an adolescent reacts to the curricular experiences have they become a part of him. Education is not a "pouring in," but a "drawing out." This is well expressed in *A Song of Myself*:

Not I, nor anyone else can travel that road for you.

You must travel it yourself.

You are asking me questions and I hear you.

I answer that I cannot answer you, you must

Find out for yourself.—WALT WHITMAN

5. *The Learner Reacts to the Total Situation.*

The experiences of the curriculum must be conceived with regard for the intellectual, social, physical, and emotional aspects of each youth's make-up. The circumstances of life which influence the learner carry over to the classroom. Each pupil is burdened or buoyed by environmental conditions which are unique to him alone. Only as the able teacher understands these circumstances does she know why the particular student reacts as he does.

6. *Learning Should Result in Improved Behavior and Attitudes.*

Living in a democratic society requires intelligent participation in group living. Individuals must be treated as ends in themselves and not as a means to an end. Skill in critically modifying the direction of social behavior is necessary. Only as the learning process has improved the individual in his relationships with others and his wholesome outlook on life has it been fully beneficial.

Articulation Problems with Lower Schools and Higher Education

LLOYD S. MICHAEL

THE effectiveness of the principal in solving articulation problems in teaching, curriculum, guidance, and administrative practice as they relate to educational levels below and above the high school is basic to sound curriculum improvement. The most recent Yearbook¹ of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development deals with the desirable degrees and types of continuity in the school program. The recommendations contained in this Yearbook should be especially helpful to schools seeking better answers to their articulation problems.

The term "articulation" is defined in its relationship among various elements of the educational program and in the interdependence of the several parts of that program.² Articulation is most frequently used in the vertical sense, although there is also the horizontal meaning. This article is concerned with the former approach—the points of transition from a lower school unit to a higher one. Articulation is considered a problem when the student meets barriers and difficulties in his transition from the lower to the next higher level of education.

There are perplexing problems in many school systems in the transition from junior high school to senior high school. One important area of concern is in curriculum content. In Evanston there are presently functioning twelve articulation committees dealing with problems of curriculum structure and content in as many subject fields with particular attention to course offerings, scope, placement, instructional materials, and teaching methods at each grade level. These committees, comprised of teachers from each school unit and representative of each grade level, are working effectively to remove many of the difficulties that pupils encounter in subject content and instruction especially in the span of four years from the seventh through the tenth grade.

Other problems in testing and counseling are discussed and resolved in frequent conferences of administrators and guidance personnel. Orientation meetings for pupils and their parents are held to acquaint them with policies and practices aimed at a high degree of continuity in educational program and services. Letters to parents, handbooks to pupils, and curriculum guides to both groups are considered valuable aids in the articulation procedures. Emphasis is also placed upon stu-

¹ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *A Look at Continuity in the School Program*. 1958 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.

² *Ibid.*, p. 4.

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dent relations. The high school considers the role of tenth-grade pupils most important in helping ninth-grade pupils understand and function successfully in a new school situation.

Many administrative and guidance practices play an important part in the smooth transition of pupils from the junior high school to the senior high school. These include: the clear interpretation of test scores, the wise selection of courses and activities, the proper pupil load in terms of ability and interest, the careful grouping of pupils, the well-planned schedule, reasonable promotion policies, and many other organizational and instructional policies and procedures.

Most school systems recognize that they have serious problems of articulation. It is essential that they clarify these problems and appraise their present practices if an effective approach is to be made to a better and more secure adjustment to high school. Any plan for improved articulation must be based upon sound principles of child development, learning, and curriculum development and must be related to the needs of a particular pupil population and a specific school community.

In many respects the transition from school to college is a more pressing and complex problem. Some of the reasons for this view merit some explanation. There is the growing school and college population. At the school level, mounting enrollments are the result primarily of the great increase in the birth rate which is now affecting the secondary school and will increasingly so. By 1965 it is estimated that high-school enrollments will have grown some sixty per cent over those of 1955. There is also the factor of the continued improvement in the holding power of the high school. A decade ago the enrollment in high school represented 74 per cent of the age group between 14 and 17. Then 40 per cent of those in school remained to graduate. Today approximately nine in every ten youth of high-school age are in school and over 55 per cent are graduated. The pool of potential college students is greatly increasing.

The college enrollment in the near future will be affected significantly by the strikingly higher expectancy of a college education. In 1900 only 4 per cent of the college-age group were in college, in 1940 the figure was 15 per cent, and is nearly 30 per cent at present. In 1960 the estimate is 40 per cent. The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School estimates that by 1970, if present trends continue, one out of every two youth will seek a college education. Bowles emphasizes the significance of this new relationship. He states:

In broad terms, the relationship between secondary education and higher education has come full cycle in 60 years. As the century began, it was marked by approximate unity of purpose and curriculum, combined with a high degree (approximately 33 per cent) of pupil retention. Subsequently, there developed a separation as to both purpose and curriculum while pupil continuity declined, reaching at one point a low of less than 20 per cent. Today, we are again approaching a unity of purpose and curriculum, but on a basis completely different from that of 1900, while the per cent of student continuity

is at an all-time high of 42 per cent, with every indication that it will continue to rise.³

A clear understanding of the need for and the implications of this unity of purpose and curriculum is basic to any sound and realistic approach to the articulation problems that face our schools and colleges. The decline in the percentage going to college during the first half of our century was generally accepted as the high school moved ahead in the realization of its goal of universal youth education. It brought with it both a change of emphasis and direction in the purpose and program of the secondary school. The high school talked about its social responsibility and implemented its philosophy by developing comprehensive high schools with many multi-purpose curriculum patterns to satisfy the needs of all youth. The high school freed itself from so-called college domination; it sloughed off its former emphasis upon college preparation and assumed a different task of preparation for immediate employment. The needs of the college-bound student were given less attention than the efforts to improve the school experiences of work-bound youth.

Today we are completing the cycle when preparation for college again becomes a major function of secondary education. The American educational system is more nearly approaching an articulated system. The first requisite of this changed relationship between school and college is a clear recognition and commitment that preparation for higher education must receive new emphasis in the purpose and curriculum of most of our secondary schools and that standards of scholastic achievement for many pupils must be raised. Among too many school people there is the erroneous belief that only a small proportion of their graduates are or will in the future go to college. There is also the too prevalent attitude that we got rid of the bad influence and domination of colleges and we have no desire to renew this unpleasant relationship.

A second requisite of improved articulation between school and college is the need for high schools through their state, regional, and national associations to cooperate with similar organizations in higher institutions in an action program to define their tasks and responsibilities and to develop programs and services that will effect a smooth and successful transition from high school to college.

Another essential is the development and improvement of the secondary-school curriculum, particularly academic subjects. There is a need for an increase in both the quantity and the quality of college-preparatory courses. The current efforts to improve the curriculum in mathematics are exemplary of cooperation and interest that can be developed and the results that can be attained. The Commission on Mathematics, established by the College Entrance Examination Board, was charged with the responsibility "to consider broadly the secondary-school college-

³ American Association of School Administrators. *The High School in a Changing World*. Thirty-Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1958. P. 156.

preparatory curriculum and to make recommendations looking toward its modernization, modification, and improvement." Many schools are presently engaged in curriculum improvement programs in mathematics and science. They not only study course offerings, content, and instructional materials, but also consider facilities and staff needs. The other subject fields should command like attention. Cook emphasizes the importance of the articulation of college and secondary-school curriculum. He writes, "Students should find a close articulation in the courses which are required both in high school and in college. English, languages, and mathematics are examples of subject matter which should be related to the two levels to prevent gaps or duplication. Both high schools and colleges should prepare and follow descriptive statements of subject content and instructional procedures.⁴ There are other factors, less related to specific school courses, that also enhance the possibilities of success in college. These include: adequate verbal and arithmetical and computational skills, problem-solving technics, effective study habits and skills, and sustained intellectual and other cultural interests.

One of the most promising developments in curriculum articulation is the Advanced Placement Program. This forward-looking program makes it possible for able and ambitious students in their senior year of high school to take college-level courses in one or more of eleven subjects. During the school year 1956-57, over 200 high schools taught such courses to more than 2,100 students. These students are this year in their freshman year at college and a sizable proportion of them have received advanced placement and, to a lesser extent, college credit for their advanced work in high school. One of the most successful and worth-while features of the Program has been the series of summer conferences in the various subject fields attended by school and college teachers to discuss courses, teaching methods, and the examinations. In the words of the former director of the Program, "Familiarity breeds respect." Our experience in Evanston with the Advanced Placement Program has been most encouraging and satisfying. Some 100 seniors have been enrolled in as many as five courses during each of the past four years. These students have generally responded well to the higher standards of scholarship and attained satisfactory scores on the required examinations in May. Our graduates, with few exceptions, have reported that they are most appreciative of the opportunity to take advanced courses and expressed with great enthusiasm the many advantages that such a program afforded them in their adjustment to college, particularly to the classroom.

Not only is there inarticulation between the school and college classroom, but there is reason for concern about the adjustment of many stu-

⁴ Cook, Denton L., "High School and College: Some Problems of Articulation." *The Clearing House*, Nov. 1957, p. 168. See also the December issue of *THE BULLETIN* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals entitled, "Advanced Placement Programs in Secondary Schools."

dents to the college campus. Two recent publications⁵ point up many of the problems that young people face in their social relations on the college level. There are many problems that grow out of the conflicts "between the strictly chaperoned intellectual forces of the classroom and the undisciplined, disorganized so-called community life of the campus." This is but one of the many unsolved articulation problems of school advisement and college admission and guidance.

The principal, alert to his responsibilities in bridging the gap between school and college, will carefully appraise the situation in his school and take necessary steps to effect needed improvements in the curriculum, testing procedures, college advisement services, and administrative policies and procedures related to effective school-college relationships. The wise management of this effort will enable all able youth to develop their talents to the fullest and contribute significantly to our present and future national needs for highly qualified men and women to meet the needs of our expanding economy and our free society.

⁵ Jacob, Philip E., *Changing Values in College*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1957, and Townsend, Agatha, *College Freshmen Speak Out*. New York: Harper and Brothers.

COMMITTEE ON CURRICULUM PLANNING
AND DEVELOPMENT

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PART II: Specific Procedures

Organizing the Faculty for Curriculum Improvement

DONALD C. MANLOVE

ASK any group of secondary-school principals to list what each considers his most important job. Since a great majority of them will list curriculum or improvement of instruction as their number one concern, an effort will be made here to list some techniques and devices instrumental in engaging the faculty in curriculum study.

If a principal is to lead curriculum work in his school to fruition, he must have the cooperation of the faculty. Some unearned prestige may come by virtue of his position, but the lion's share of such positive influence he must earn through professional ability, sincerity, respect for others' opinions, friendliness, and, above all, an altruistic desire to provide the best program of instruction possible.

A secondary-school faculty can be an amazing fount of knowledge, energy, and enthusiasm, and, therefore, the utilization of this potential is indispensable when curriculum planning is in the offing. Here are professionally trained people representing different disciplines, vitally interested in the education of boys and girls, and ready to contribute time and energy to curriculum study. Lest some reader challenge the picture as too rosy, it is the conviction of the writer that most faculty members, when they fully understand their role, are eager to participate in curriculum study. Thus, the wise principal is one who is able to guide the energies of his faculty into successful and rewarding curriculum-planning endeavors.

Only a few principals ever have that challenging task of organizing a new school, thus starting from scratch; the majority find themselves a part of a "going" concern. Thus, in some subject-area departments, the progress in curriculum improvement may be proceeding satisfactorily in varying degrees; in other areas, the work may be floundering or stagnant.

The organization of the faculty for a frontal assault on curriculum improvement may be done in a variety of ways. If the school is small, the entire faculty may work together, with each staff member being a part of the curriculum committee. Terminology is not important, and,

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whether it is called the curriculum committee or another name, there must be some central group which gives direction and enthusiasm and helps to coordinate the efforts of the entire staff. Unfortunately, a large staff precludes the possibility of all staff members working directly on the committee. The size of the committee may vary considerably, but in most instances a group larger than 15 to 18 might become a bit cumbersome.

COMMITTEE MEMBERSHIP

Who should compose the membership of this group? Even though many desirable qualities in a committee member could be listed, most of them can be grouped under two headings.

First, the members should be willing to serve. Perhaps eagerness to serve would be better than mere willingness. Unless the members of the committee are sympathetic with a continuous effort to improve instruction, any program of curriculum study is doomed. Willingness to serve implies that members have the opportunity to volunteer for this assignment.

Second, each member should be well qualified. If the school is organized on a departmental basis, the department heads may be among the membership. This does not presuppose that the entire membership be composed of department heads only. There should be other staff members who by virtue of training, experience, interest, and ability may prove invaluable members of this central group. An ability to see the *entire* program in its proper perspective, rather than being interested in one or two areas of instruction, is a must if a committee member is to be considered well qualified.

Once the membership has been determined, the group is ready to organize. A chairman may be appointed by the principal or elected by the group. The method of selection of a chairman must be determined locally; what may work best in one situation may not prove equally effective in another. Use of the election method precludes any tendency of committee members to be critical of the principal for real or fancied handpicking of a chairman to rubber stamp his ideas.

The principal, himself, should not ordinarily serve as chairman. His contributions in long-range planning will be more efficacious if he is an active participant as a committee member only. As a member of the committee, he must earn his right to recognition; he must not be autocratic or pre-emptory.

In addition to the chairman, a recorder or a secretary will be needed. An agenda, supplied by the recorder for each meeting, helps give direction and focus attention on specific problems, thus discouraging generalized discussion which sometimes has a tendency to wander off the subject. A record of proposals, actions, and findings also is absolutely necessary to give the committee continuity.

HOW TO START

Now the committee has been formed, its members selected, and its organization complete. Where does it start and how does it come to grips with curriculum improvement?

In order to unify the group and start them thinking constructively, thought should be given to aims, objectives, and philosophy. This approach is not new, but it is important: a school's approach to curriculum must stem from its philosophy. How can the needs of local boys and girls be discussed without some basic agreement on the purposes of education and the outcomes desired? Hence, writing an up-to-date philosophy of education, endorsed by the entire faculty and community, is a primary, realistic, rewarding, and necessary task of the committee. If a local school philosophy already has been issued, it should be reviewed, and revised if necessary.

The philosophy having been stated, now the committee is ready to review the present curriculum completely. Such a review will assure that each member is thoroughly familiar with the total offerings of the school. The results of this review can profitably be made available to the entire faculty through duplicated minutes of the proceedings of the committee or through oral reports.

It is somewhat disturbing that teachers who are extremely subject matter conscious may, if left uninformed, become totally unaware of what is happening to boys and girls during the 80 to 85 per cent of the school day the pupils are not in their classes. Such a teacher will be considerably more effective if he visualizes the total school program and understands his role therein. Not only must the faculty be kept informed, but it is also important that the superintendent, the board, the students, and even the community have some understanding of the work of the committee. The wise principal sees that these lines of communication are open.

Since the duties of the curriculum committee may vary somewhat in different schools, it is important that these areas of responsibility be defined. Some committees may serve largely as reviewing groups. They may initiate and supervise study in different areas, the major portion of the work being done by sub-committees in which faculty members not on the committee are consulted. The sub-committees' reports may then be reviewed by the central committee, which may in turn recommend them to the faculty or the superintendent. The action taken may be dependent not only upon the importance and scope of the problem considered, but also upon the administrative organization of the school system. Other curriculum committees may be primarily action groups, delving into the details of each problem themselves and then making recommendations as a result of their findings.

A word of caution is in order concerning the size of the problem tackled. The committee, regardless of the type of organization it uses, should not attempt too much, and it should be certain the area in which

Once the membership has been determined, the group is ready to organize. A chairman may be appointed by the principal or elected by the group. The method of selection of a chairman must be determined locally; what may work best in one situation may not prove equally effective in another. Use of the election method precludes any tendency of committee members to be critical of the principal for real or fancied handpicking of a chairman to rubber stamp his ideas.

The principal, himself, should not ordinarily serve as chairman. His contributions in long-range planning will be more efficacious if he is an active participant as a committee member only. As a member of the committee, he must earn his right to recognition; he must not be autocratic or pre-emptory.

In addition to the chairman, a recorder or a secretary will be needed. An agenda, supplied by the recorder for each meeting, helps give direction and focus attention on specific problems, thus discouraging generalized discussion which sometimes has a tendency to wander off the subject. A record of proposals, actions, and findings also is absolutely necessary to give the committee continuity.

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and even the community have some understanding of the work of the committee. The wise principal sees that these *lines of communication* are open.

Since the duties of the curriculum committee may vary somewhat in different schools, it is important that these areas of responsibility be defined. Some committees may serve largely as reviewing groups. They may initiate and supervise study in different areas, the major portion of the work being done by sub-committees in which faculty members not on the committee are consulted. The sub-committees' reports may then be reviewed by the central committee, which may in turn recommend them to the faculty or the superintendent. The action taken may be dependent not only upon the importance and scope of the problem considered, but also upon the administrative organization of the school system. Other curriculum committees may be primarily action groups, delving into the details of each problem themselves and then making recommendations as a result of their findings.

A word of caution is in order concerning the size of the problem tackled. The committee, regardless of the type of organization it uses, should not attempt too much, and it should be certain the area in which

work is to be done is defined. It has been said that it is as difficult to change a curriculum as it is to move a graveyard. Even though this comparison may not be correct in every case, there is ample evidence to indicate that curriculum change at best comes slowly. As committee procedures become clear and some success is experienced, only then should the group wish to come to grasp with more involved problems.

A successful curriculum committee is an integral part of a secondary school. In the Richmond Senior High School, the faculty is now completing a two-year extensive study in planning a substantial addition to the present building facilities. In this study the curriculum committee served as the master planning group in an attempt to plan building facilities in light of curriculum needs—to provide a tailor-made plant.

The preliminary recommendations are now being submitted to the superintendent and the board of school trustees. Naturally, the committee's background of experience in curriculum planning has proved particularly valuable as the building plans proceed.

The modern high school is staffed, with some exceptions, by a faculty whose days are full of class assignments. Admittedly it is difficult to find adequate time to study curriculum. Yet this time can be found in those schools in which there is a real concern for curriculum improvement. It is good to hear of schools where time is given during the regular school day for curriculum study, but in most instances the majority of the work will be done by those staff members willing to give of their time after a full day's assignment of classes and other regular duties. Nothing is more gratifying to a principal than to see capable and professional secondary-school teachers spending substantial amounts of time regularly in curriculum planning after teaching a full day's schedule.

It is to the credit of thousands of outstanding teachers and principals in the United States that there is an active program of continuous curriculum improvement in many schools. No one knows exactly, perhaps, the direction our schools will go in the future, but one can be fairly certain that there will be change all along the line, if we judge the future by the past. An alert principal, then, must not allow his school program to become ossified; he must continually examine and weigh new ideas, with a view of incorporating into his curriculum those of merit. And in the study of the changing needs of his school, he needs to establish a permanent curriculum study committee to help him chart a clear way through the maze of ideas that sometime clutter the road to an effective educational program.

The Principal Studies His Leadership Role

LESTER J. GRANT

ORGANIZATION for effective work becomes necessary as several people attempt through combined effort to achieve some desired goal. It is only a means to the end. Since the personnel make-up of each school is different, any effective organization must be built around existing personnel.

The real test of any organization for curriculum improvement is the contribution it makes to improving the quality of learning. This contribution is very difficult to test. However, an effective organization contributes to good human relations—an important factor in any group effort.

The principal is the responsible head of the school. If his school is a part of a system, he has the responsibility of interpreting system-wide philosophy and policies. He must also be established in a leadership role for his building. Here his leadership and initiative determine to a large degree whether that school is characterized as a leader in the system, as doing nothing, or somewhere between these extremes.

Although the principal functions in his proper leadership role, the teacher is still the focal point for change, and improvement in curriculum results only as there are changes in values, understandings, and skills of the teacher. While the principal must work with teachers as individuals, providing for their participation in groups has been found to be one of the most effective means for sharing decision making with them and, consequently, helping them to learn the needed modifications in their values, understanding, and skills. As he recognizes in a teacher a spark of interest for a needed study, a wise principal fans this spark and encourages that teacher to work with others on the staff who have similar interests. An examination of those projects which have proved most fruitful reveals that they were those which usually began with a few zealous teachers and later spread to others.

Equally as important as organization is the atmosphere which prevails. To be effective at least the following conditions must maintain.

1. The principal must be available to the staff. He must be willing to listen to teachers' concerns and plans just as he expects them to listen to the things he takes to them.

2. Committees appointed must represent varied points of view, not just those of the principal. A system of two-way communication between committees and entire staff must be provided so the staff may be informed of the progress of the committee and also make any contributions.

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3. Both teachers and principal must be highly ethical and professional in their actions so the maximum participation may be achieved and the greatest good for the education of the students.

4. The principal must have the courage of his convictions. He must be willing to take a stand on issues knowing he cannot "be right" all the time.

5. The principal freely gives credit for accomplishments of his staff.

6. There is a friendly relationship between principal and the teachers and students so that a wholesome and natural working condition exists.

THE CENTRALLY COORDINATED APPROACH

In school systems of several schools, there are different approaches to curriculum improvement. They usually fall into about three types; namely, centrally directed, independent attack by individual schools, and centrally coordinated. The following described organization is part of what is commonly described as the *centrally coordinated approach*. Teachers and principals in individual schools are encouraged to improve the instructional process in their school in order to better serve their pupils. At the same time through system-wide committees, they combine their efforts for the instructional improvement in all the schools. Thus, an individual school staff may be interested in improving health experiences of pupils in its area while, at the same time through committee representation, they are working on a system-wide project for the improvement of reading. In a centrally coordinated system there are some very noticeable benefits, such as:

1. System-wide awareness of any studies being made.

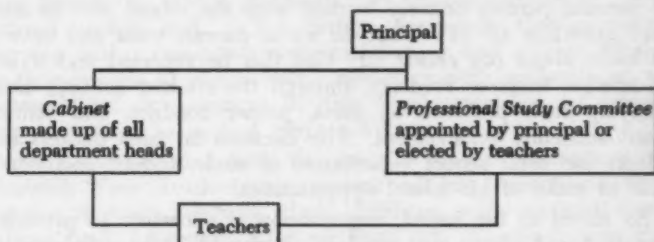
2. No wide variation system-wide from school to school in educational opportunities. This makes student transfers within the system less difficult and it reduces parental demand for a child to attend a given school because of curriculum differences. This also helps to avoid clashes between local school areas involving either parents, teachers, or both.

3. Policies related to change of content, methods, or time allotments are uniform throughout the system. This not only assures awareness by all teachers of any building studies being made, but also, through appropriate system-wide committees, the school engaged in the study receives contributions which may benefit the building study project.

Probably the greatest single weakness of a centrally coordinated system presents an excellent test of the real leadership ability of the building principal. With coordination and leadership coming from a central study committee, there may be a strong tendency to expect all ideas and directions to stem from this source. The building principal who falls into this position is likely to refer his teacher who has a real problem to the central committee rather than first to give it building consideration. This frequently has the effect of dulling the teacher's interest and of removing from him the possibility of immediate consideration of his problem.

THE STRUCTURAL PATTERN

The building principal, therefore, needs to use a building organization based on the same structural pattern and involving the same publics as if it were a system-wide attack. These publics are the teaching staff, students, parents, and other community representatives. These groups are involved in various ways depending upon the project and the stage of the study. The more simple the organization the better it is likely to function; but none will function as effectively as it should unless clearly drawn out and steps defined. Therefore, for a single building it may be as simple as shown below.



The Cabinet serves as a clearinghouse for the specific curriculum problems from individuals or curriculum areas. It helps the principal in making such decisions as determining the priority of attack on problems suggested for study, scope of the study, and plan for attack. The principal meets regularly and frequently with this Cabinet. Through this body he has an opportunity to present for staff consideration his own ideas or the manifested concerns of individual teachers. His ability to sense their real concerns and get total staff participation in the decision making is a real test of his effectiveness as a leader.

Once the staff or a designated committee is ready to function, the principal makes every effort to provide for such related needs as clerical help, consultants, library materials, and desirable study conditions. Without his real concern for these matters, a committee frequently loses interest and effectiveness.

The Professional Study Committee here appears to be apart from curriculum improvement. If we accept the principle that curriculum includes all the activities which the school undertakes for the benefit of the students, it would appear that only one such committee is necessary. However, because the secondary activities often seem to loom so important and failure to attack them directly may impede progress on the major study, this separate committee seems to perform a real

need. The activities of this committee may be centered around staff and school organization which will permit effective teaching and maximum student growth, professional growth, and teacher welfare. Such concerns as (1) school publications, (2) so-called student extra-curricular or club activities, (3) organization for participation of staff on system-wide curriculum and policy-making committees, (4) student council operation, (5) success of students as shown by achievement tests, and (6) method of reporting to parents may receive the attention of the entire staff through this committee.

Through the Cabinet and Professional Study Committees it is determined when students and parents should be drawn into direct participation. For example, in a recent study of methods of reporting to parents, parents actively worked with the school staff in answering such questions as: (1) What do we as parents want and have a right to know about our child? (2) Can this be reported and if so, how? In another instance students, through the student council, assisted in studying such problems as dress, proper conduct, and attitudes toward academic achievement. The decision on such matters definitely affects the total school experiences of each student and what he is able to make of his school opportunities.

As stated at the outset, organization is necessary to provide a systematic approach to any problem. It should be as simple as possible. The size of staff will definitely affect the amount of organization needed. However, the best apparent organization will fail unless the principal possesses those leadership qualifications which prompt him to establish proper rapport among himself, his teachers, students, and public.

The Curriculum Committee Goes To Work

GEORGE E. SHATTUCK

THE curriculum committee of the Norwich Free Academy functions in a comprehensive high school which enrolls 2,360, grades 9-12. The school is, in effect, a regional high school serving the City of Norwich and eight nearby communities. The faculty numbers 114.

The first requisite for the development of a working committee on curriculum, or any other staff committee, is a friendly and understanding climate in which is found: (a) skillful leadership, (b) a professional-minded staff, (c) a certain derring-do that encourages the carrying out of committee recommendations, and (d) an administration that intends to clothe staff committees with authority as well as responsibility. An account of the development of an effective working committee in such a climate follows.

For many years, it had been the practice of the administration of the Norwich Free Academy to appoint *ad hoc* committees whose mission was to study assigned school problems, come up with recommendations, and, frequently, to carry them out. As effective as these committees proved to be, their efforts were somewhat circumscribed and their organization precluded long-range and continued activity. Several years ago it was proposed that the faculty elect a committee on committees whose responsibility was to set up working committees and to appoint their personnel. Fortunately, this rather cumbersome, slow moving organization proved to be somewhat ineffective and unproductive. Still seeking the development of a going concern, a different approach was made in the fall of 1951. At that time, it was well known that changes were to be made in our ninth-grade curriculum, and there was no difficulty in setting up a curriculum committee consisting of representatives elected from various departments and divisions of instruction—all dedicated to progress, but including some unbelievers who were out to protect their vested interests.

In the beginning, membership on the committee was not formalized, no minutes were kept and any member of the faculty was welcome—the price of membership being the imminent danger of assignment on a sub-committee. The bi-weekly meetings were never dull; they were free-for-all, no-holds-barred affairs. The chairman, newly elevated from the ranks as curriculum coordinator, was equipped with a new and shining Ph.D. badge, infinite patience, and sincere appreciation and understanding of people and their behaviour. The responsibilities of

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leadership were his and the principal's role was that of a spectator on the 50-yard line, first row. He was near enough to the field so that his cheers could be heard by the team, but far enough away to escape personal injury. During the school year, studies were carried on by sub-committees, frequent discussions were held, differences resolved, and consensuses were reached. A written report was presented to the entire faculty. By this time, very little general discussion was necessary. Committee members had carried word of the committee's deliberations to teachers' rooms and corridor conferences, and, since committee membership was open, fully 90% of the faculty had attended committee meetings at one time or another and most had been active participants. Consequently, it was an understanding and well-informed faculty that voted to carry out the committee's proposal for a new general education program for the ninth grade.

At the successful conclusion of its initial mission, the curriculum committee was not discharged. In succeeding years, it became ever more active and concerned with the immediate and long-range mission of the school. It meets at two week intervals; it publishes an agenda and also a report of its deliberations and recommendations. The committee selects its chairman and the curriculum coordinator acts as secretary. Membership is voluntary and open to all, and the pre-meeting coffee is "on the house." The work of the committee encompasses many areas of the work of the school. It has developed the advanced standing program for all four grades and a core program for the educationally handicapped. The pupil grouping procedures have been revamped and improved. The co-curricular and activities program has been studied and evaluated. The committee developed an honor study system. Many projects of lesser consequence have been promoted. Currently, the committee is considering the evaluation of pupil progress and will come up with recommendations designed to improve our marking system and report procedures.

The effectiveness of the committee is due not only to the professional enthusiasm of its members, but also to the leadership of the coordinator. The committee is active and eager, and leadership is not a passive role. Problems have to be identified and anticipated and this the curriculum coordinator has recognized as his legitimate responsibility. While ready-made solutions are never offered to the committee, the coordinator is prepared to present the theoretic components. In this manner, curriculum adjustment becomes a matter of re-education and a type of in-service education. While this may seem slow and laborious, one other factor makes for more speedy progress—no one is forced to make a change to which he is not committed. On the other hand, total commitment of the entire faculty is not awaited, or indeed expected before modifications are applied. Changes may be carried out by one or two persons or one department, forming a local climate of change that may effect the outlying districts and spread—a sort of curriculum change by contagion.

This is a factual report and is not designed to be a suggested pattern of the principal's role. Variables such as size of school, personnel, community interest and support, and organizational practices all have their impact upon curriculum development. In this case the principal has allegated responsibility and authority to his willing and able staff. A trained and able curriculum coordinator is the key person in providing technical leadership. The principal's role includes that of an evaluator, promoter and resource person, and fellow worker in the vineyard.

Columbus High School Organizes for Curriculum Development

ARTHUR C. HEARN

TWO years ago, the *Illinois Inventory of Teacher Opinion*¹ had been administered to the faculty at Columbus High School² and had served a most useful purpose in helping the staff to identify its major problems. The problems themselves were not unusual ones for a secondary school—in fact they were quite typical—and all were related, directly or indirectly, to the instructional program. There was, for example, some concern about discipline. The need for more specific policies relative to report cards, marking, and other aspects of pupil evaluation was evidenced. Interference with classwork was considered excessive by several. "Must extraclass activities be scheduled at the expense of other phases of the program?" asked some. Others would cheerfully eliminate the public address system.

These matters were important first of all because they represented the major problems in Columbus High School as viewed by the faculty at a specific time. As such they provided the best possible take-off point for a program of school self-improvement. Secondly, Principal George Thomas and the faculty had agreed that these problems would serve as the basis for a series of faculty meetings during the current school year. Each problem was to be discussed thoroughly by the entire staff, with basic policy to be determined as the outcome of careful deliberation.

In the first meeting of the series, the matter of discipline was considered. (It was noted that several items in the teacher opinion

¹ Harold C. Hand. *What People Think About Their Schools*. New York: World Book Co. 1948. Pp. 195-217.

² The name of the school is fictitious, but the school itself exists.

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inventory related to discipline—and not without good reason.) A single meeting did not provide sufficient time for this particular problem at Columbus. Nor was the staff able to reach satisfactory conclusions on some of its other problems in that short a time. In each case, however, agreements were eventually reached and guiding principles established.

Relatively early in the series of meetings, the staff came to an elementary but basic and fundamental realization. It was the recognition of the fact that appropriate and defensible solutions to specific problems must emerge from philosophical considerations. Stated in a different way, every school needs to come to grips with the problem of education objectives. It needs to agree upon a statement of purposes which is understood by and acceptable to all of the "publics" involved. Of these publics, the staff is an important one—but it is only one.

So while continuing its work on the problems of immediate concern and importance, the staff undertook to develop in its own mind a proposal for a set of guiding educational principles. Recognizing that several excellent statements of educational objectives were available, the faculty reviewed the major pronouncements; they eventually selected the statement of the Educational Policies Commission, outlined in the publication *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*⁸, as providing the best starting point in its particular situation. Although the staff, for its own purposes, accepted the Commission's wording with few revisions, it was convinced that, to be truly effective, such a statement must involve other groups—especially the parents and the students.

A considerable amount of re-phrasing was deemed necessary in order that the objectives might be usable with these and other "publics." In the course of this work, the staff was agreeably surprised to discover that these groups evidenced much more interest than had been anticipated in educational objectives and the ways in which schools were endeavoring to attain them. The Columbus faculty had been led to believe, because of the efforts of a relatively small, but vociferous minority, that certain extraclass activities comprised the primary, if not the sole interest of the community as a whole, insofar as its high school was concerned. Columbus was not the first school to assume, erroneously, that a particular minority represented the sentiments of an entire community; neither was it the first to discover, gratefully, that a community is likely to demonstrate more interest in objectives, curriculum, and guidance than in any other aspects of the school program—when steps are taken to insure an adequate sampling.

The implementation of the objectives next engaged the staff's attention. This led first to a thoughtful examination of the school's course offerings. After informal consultation and discussion with other teachers in his teaching field, each member of the staff developed a series of

⁸ Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: The Commission. 1938. 154 pp.

brief, written statements in which he described each of the courses included in his teaching assignment. These statements contained course objectives, an outline of general course content, teaching methods employed, basic and supplementary instructional materials, and proposals for the evaluation of students' work. The entire set of statements thus represented, at least in outline form, the school's course of study as viewed at that particular time by individual staff members. As such it comprised a significant document, regardless of the shortcomings inherent in any "first attempt." It represented a starting point from which further development could and eventually did take place.

With these thoughts foremost in mind, Principal Thomas arranged to have the individual statements assembled and mimeographed so that each member of the faculty could have a copy of the complete document. This not only gave each teacher an opportunity to view each departmental offering as a whole, but also provided an overview of the program of the entire school. There were many almost instantaneous reactions—nearly all positive and constructive—when the document first appeared. Overlappings as well as omissions in the school's offerings were noted. Many staff members suggested that they could do much to rectify these and other shortcomings—a few wanted an immediate administrative "green light" to prove it. Principal Thomas was justifiably delighted with the progress attained in approximately one year of faculty concentration on the instructional program.

At the beginning of the ensuing school year, significant further steps were taken. In order that staff collaboration on a more organized basis be facilitated, curriculum committees representing each of the major areas of instruction were established. In addition to the more traditional committees (*e.g.*, social studies, industrial arts, mathematics), three others were instituted. One of these was in the area of health. It included representatives from the fields of social studies, physical education, science, and homemaking. Columbus High School was seeking to free itself from the idea that health instruction should automatically be assigned to physical education.

Another committee was established in the field of guidance. This group, too, cut across traditional subject matter lines. It included representatives from English, social studies, and counseling. Its major function was to come to an agreement concerning the topics in the field of guidance with which the school should concern itself, and then to make proposals relative to the ways in which the school should implement this responsibility. Thus the allocation of specific guidance topics as units within various required courses was recommended. Materials published by National Forum⁴ and Science Research Associates⁵ were found to be most helpful in developing the group guidance program.

⁴ National Forum, Inc., 407 S. Dearborn St., Chicago 5, Illinois.

⁵ Science Research Associates, Inc., 57 W. Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Illinois.

The third additional committee represented the field of extraclass activities. Columbus High School had long given lip-service to the concept that these important aspects of the school program were a vital part of the total curriculum. Unfortunately, however, this philosophy had not been translated very effectively into practice. Here was an opportunity, in developing the administrative organization for curriculum development, to move another big step forward in solving one of the secondary-school's most perplexing problems.

Each of Columbus' curriculum committees operated under the direction of a teacher-chairman. Principal Thomas and Vice Principal Frank Hardy served as *ex-officio* members of each committee. Time did not, of course, permit their attendance at all of the meetings of every committee; however, their availability on call to act in a consultant capacity and to provide encouragement constituted a very important ingredient of the total program.

Each committee assumed the responsibility for developing the appropriate department (and in some cases interdepartmental) courses of study for the school. Committees varied in the number of meetings held during the year as well as in their methods of operation. This inevitably followed from the atmosphere of freedom within which the various groups worked and from the differences characteristic of the people involved. The general attitude of the faculty was one of enthusiasm and of conviction that a necessary and important piece of work was being done. Every member of the staff thus had the opportunity to make his unique contribution to the success of the entire school.

So comprehensive was the work of some committees that these group meetings, to a large extent, substituted for general faculty meetings during the course of the year. Principal Thomas wisely took into consideration the total demands made upon the time and energy of the staff, and reassessed, with the help of his colleagues, the entire pattern of the school's faculty meetings. As a result, the time devoted to curriculum development was provided largely through reorganization of the time already devoted to meetings of the professional staff, rather than by adding activities to those already in existence. The positive effect of such a policy upon morale and upon the school program as a whole was readily discernible.

Of especial significance as an outcome of the faculty's deliberations was the development, by several curriculum committees, of departmental objectives which were specifically related to the general educational objectives already agreed upon by the staff as a whole. The several curriculum committees had studied a large number of subject area courses of study and other curriculum documents developed by various school systems. Materials of this nature are available by the thousands. But an examination of the documents revealed a startling situation. In all but a small minority of cases, there was no clear evidence of any recognized relationship between the subject areas with which they

were concerned and the total educational program of the school. The Columbus faculty recognized this condition as one which helped to justify the criticism that secondary-school teachers are all too often competent in their own fields, but unconcerned with the program as a whole. The staff sought means of correcting what to them was a serious shortcoming. The mathematics committee, for example, developed the following statement as the first of four objectives in that subject field:

To contribute in all ways possible to the attainment of the objectives of education, and *in particular* to those relating to the following:

speech	personal economics
reading	consumer education
writing (including spelling)	critical judgment (including
number	systematic thinking and
listening and observing	reasoning)

The above statement (along with similar ones developed by committees in other subject fields) is very significant to the Columbus faculty. It suggests, first of all, a cognizance of general educational objectives and a recognition of the fact that the first responsibility of mathematics, as of any other field, is to contribute to the attainment of these general objectives. Second, the statement implies recognition of the fact that mathematics (again, as well as other fields) has a *particular* responsibility to emphasize certain objectives not especially identified with or limited to any one subject field (*e.g.*, speech, reading, listening). Finally, there is recognition of the fact that the field of mathematics, because of the nature of its content, is in an especially advantageous position to emphasize certain other general objectives of education (*e.g.*, number, personal economics, logical reasoning).

Obviously, the mere fact that a group of teachers in a school has viewed departmental objectives in the light that Columbus' mathematics teachers have does not guarantee that those teachers and their teaching are necessarily better because of it. However, there is a decided likelihood that such would be the case. And certainly the *absence* of departmental and course objectives stated in terms of the general objectives of education leaves a faculty "wide open" to many fair and basic questions which any thoughtful observer might raise.

The several committee chairmen form the school's general curriculum committee. This committee's function is to coordinate the work of the separate groups. University and State Department of Education leaders serve as curriculum consultants and are most helpful in assisting with the over-all planning. Several committee chairmen have already reported on their progress at general faculty meetings. There is general agreement that the work being done constitutes a most valuable and effective program of in-service education.

The Columbus faculty recognizes that this brief account of their efforts to date represents only a partial progress report of a dynamic, continuous process which is never finished. Undoubtedly a similar

account written at some later date will indicate further progress in curriculum development—it assuredly will reveal some differences in approach, in content, and in method.

The work of Columbus High School will perhaps offer some suggestions to other schools as they study their own instructional problems. However, the very nature of the curriculum dictates that every successful program must be in many respects unique. To attempt to do just as someone else has done constitutes one of the most serious possible mistakes in a curriculum development program. The most tragic situation of all, however, exists when there is no specific provision for an all-school approach to the improvement of the school's curricular offerings.

Practical Suggestions for Improving the Principal's Competency

KENNETH A. ERICKSON

THE need for curriculum improvement is universal. There is no area of learning today which cannot be improved. The person basically responsible for curriculum changes is the school principal. However, a principal alone cannot effect the necessary curriculum improvements. In spite of this, he cannot escape the responsibility of seeing that this important task is accomplished.

The school's program of studies is one of the most important responsibilities competing for each principal's attention. At the same time, it is one of his least demanding responsibilities and often the most easily overlooked. Fortunately, the principal is head of an institution which is a most promising unit for effecting curriculum change. The principal's major problem is how to get his organization operating effectively in behalf of curriculum improvement.

Textbooks often have general suggestions for bettering a school's program of studies. Listed below are twenty-two practical suggestions which have been attempted in Franklin High School. Some of the ideas are yet in the experimental stage, but all are easily adaptable to other schools. More complete information concerning any of the suggestions briefed below is available on inquiry.

1. Work constantly to develop that intangible yet ever present faculty spirit which allows teachers to question present practices critically and constructively. Not until teachers feel a genuine sense of security can

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they be stimulated to evaluate, investigate, and experiment with new ideas. Teachers who are insecure cling to the security found by running in old ruts and familiar patterns of behavior.

2. Request additional help to work solely with the staff in the supervision of teaching and the planning of curriculum improvement. The new assistant may be part or full-time depending on the size of the school. The Portland School Board willingly complied with such a request several years ago. All high schools now have a "curriculum vice-principal" in addition to the two administrative vice-principals. Progress has been much greater in matters of curriculum improvement since the addition of a "curriculum vice-principal."

3. Place priorities of importance on your various daily responsibilities. Matters less important than curriculum improvement must be relegated to the lower end of your list of duties. Many small and annoying problems tend to disappear when a principal concerns himself with items of high priority. Classroom visitations and individual teacher conferences are too easily pushed aside by the pressure of paper work.

4. Acknowledge the fact that the school and its curriculum matters do not belong just to one person. A principal must not be uncomfortable about giving up some curriculum planning to his able colleagues. His strength actually depends on their individual and collective abilities. Therefore, the principal must encourage participation and leadership on the part of his teachers if curriculum studies are to be a continuing process.

5. Organize an active curriculum council as one of the best guarantees of continuous study in this area. A committee appointed by the principal and consisting of nine teachers and three lay members will work satisfactorily. Three teachers and one lay member should be appointed each year for three-year terms. The council meets weekly after school for an hour and one half, and the administrator responsible for curriculum development attends in an *ex-officio* manner. The group elects a chairman and a secretary from its membership. A copy of the minutes of all meetings go to each council member, to each school administrator, and to the school department chairmen. A copy is also posted on the teachers' bulletin board. Topics discussed are unlimited as long as they relate in some way to the school curriculum. These topics may originate from within the group or may be referred to the group by individual teachers, department chairmen, or administrators. In addition to general discussion topics, all proposals for additions, modifications, or deletions in the school curriculum must be reviewed and approved by the council. Recommendations of the council go to the principal for approval and for implementation. Such a curriculum council has been functioning effectively in Franklin High School since 1950.

6. Divide the faculty into small discussion groups instead of holding traditional single, large staff meetings. Realistic discussions of benefit

to all teachers are impossible when the group is too large. If the faculty is divided into four groups for example, two of the school administrators will each take a group on teachers' meeting day and hold curriculum discussions in which teachers can actually participate in the discussion. The rest of the faculty will meet by departments on this day, but they will alternate and meet in small groups on the following week. No additional meeting days are required for teachers, but the plan does allow for actual curriculum discussions with the entire faculty in a two-week period.

7. Stimulate faculty discussions of new ideas by a plan of sharing current educational literature. Subscribe for a number of leading educational periodicals and research publications. Ask individual staff members to volunteer to receive copies of one particular periodical. This teacher will then review the periodical and carefully select articles of probable interest to other staff members. Teachers should be encouraged to cut out important articles and route them to staff members interested in the particular item. The final destination of all articles is the library's professional file where they are placed in folders under general headings as "counseling" or other subject titles.

8. Provide time for regular departmental meetings so that discussion of pertinent curriculum matters may be held. In order to guarantee some progress during the school year, ask each department at its first meeting to indicate the problems selected for discussion during the school year. The principal should request that minutes be kept of each departmental meeting and that duplicated copies be sent to administrators, to members of the curriculum council, to other department chairmen, and to the subject matter supervisor in the school system. A summary which reviews the progress made on the year's problems should be requested at the end of the school year.

9. Study curriculum matters carefully, but not indefinitely before taking action. It is improbable that all the facts relating to any problem will ever be known. Some action of an experimental nature must begin after consideration of all the carefully evaluated facts at hand. Should a principal not follow the recommendation of a teachers' study committee, he has the obligation to explain why action is delayed or not taken.

10. Approve the adoption of recommended curriculum changes on a trial or experimental basis. Schedule a careful evaluation of all new plans after a year of operation so that refinements may be made if the new plan has proved successful. Any experiment which has not proved itself to be of value obviously should be discarded.

11. Provide an enriched program of studies for students of higher ability. The grouping of top ability students into special classes or seminars in Portland high schools has functioned satisfactorily with real benefit to the gifted. This program of educational enrichment was originally sponsored by the Ford Foundation. Principals today must be

cautious, however, to avoid popular pressures toward elitism lest practical grouping programs swing to unrealistic extremes.

12. Remove retarded pupils (below 80 I.Q.) from regular academic classes in the interest of a better program for the typical students. The slower pupils should be grouped with special teachers for certain academic classes such as English, social studies, mathematics, or science. Such a program spares each teacher from the extremely wide spread of abilities found in a typical classroom and allows her to offer a better program of studies for those who remain. Care must be exercised continually that classes of retarded students be selected only on the basis of standardized tests. The selection of students for retarded classes must never be on the subjective evaluation of teachers which may include disciplinary reasons.

13. Use persistent instructional problems which face teachers as a common ground of interest for staff discussions through which suggestions for improvement will be sought. Such problems include motivation of students to learn, testing and evaluation of student work, reporting to parents better methods of presenting subject matter, ways to help students to study, and the perennial problem of class interruptions.

14. Arrange for in-service study plans for which credit is granted following intensive work on a particular problem over a period of several months. After a specific problem has been approved for study, arrange that an adviser, coordinator, or specialist be assigned to the group to assist and act as a resource person.

15. Arrange for the inter-visitation of your teachers to other classrooms in your building or to schools where outstanding teaching is in progress. As simple as this practice may appear, the observation of superior teaching can stimulate other teachers to self-evaluation which is the first step in any improvement program.

16. Request your superintendent or your school board to arrange for released time during the school year or for additional money for summer work so that teacher time is available for some of the more time-consuming problems of curriculum improvement. More and more school boards are making this provision for work on specific curriculum projects.

17. Urge teachers to attend professional meetings and educational workshops. Teachers are busy individuals and often must be encouraged to participate in such programs. Exposure to new and stimulating ideas constitutes the best possibility for an epidemic of curriculum study and teacher change.

18. Avoid any possibility of dictating curriculum changes. Teachers are not necessarily impressed with plans imposed by a principal. On the other hand, teachers will work endlessly to accomplish purposes which they consider important. Curriculum changes dictated by a principal are doomed to eventual failure. If teachers are not involved in the

discussion and planning of changes, they are psychologically resistant to new ideas. To achieve changes which eventually improve the program of studies for students, the principal must involve teachers in solving problems significant to them.

19. Encourage the initiative, effort, and accomplishments of your teachers who are on the forefront of educational change. A principal must work with teachers who are not opposed to evaluation and change. It is doubtful that 100% of any faculty will ever be enthusiastic about making improvements. The fact is that, in the minds of some teachers, there are valid reasons for resisting change. These reasons include fear of new developments, personal insecurity, lack of interest, sheer unwillingness to try new procedures, and inferior educational leadership.

20. Recognize publicly and with sincere gratitude the progress achieved by individual teachers. A principal must give credit to those who have made real contributions to the improvement of the program of studies. Nothing stimulates and inspires staff members to additional service like progress that is publicly recognized and praised. Accomplishments which are honored by the principal tend to stimulate further similar accomplishments.

21. Select new staff members most carefully and practice selective retention of teachers already on the staff as major steps toward future curriculum improvements. The careless selection of staff members by principals endangers the program of future curriculum development by teaching staffs.

22. Admit honestly that you do not know all the answers to all the curriculum problems. No principal can be expected to be an expert in all the various fields of instruction. His responsibility is to organize both human and material resources, to help teachers identify problems, to provide time for discussion of the problems, to encourage teachers to seek the best solutions, and to permit experimentation in line with the recommendations of those who have studied the problems.

Each principal can add to this list from his own experiences in the field of curriculum improvement. All principals should seek additional suggestions through discussions with teachers who in the final analysis are the true curriculum experts.

Realistic progress can be expected to the degree that each principal establishes the proper climate to encourage constructive criticism, discussion, and experimentation, and to the degree that he encourages teachers to work with him and through committees on curriculum development. No principal will ever do it alone!

Improving Curriculum Procedures

JEFF WEST

CURRICULUM improvement results when growth occurs on the part of those people who participate in the development of the curriculum. The key to a dynamic program of instruction is the leadership of the principal. His most important responsibility is to provide active leadership in developing a suitable curriculum for the students within his school. The procedures listed in this article were compiled by supervisors from practices developed and used over a period of years by 151 principals. Because of the limitations of space, an outline type format follows, making it possible to provide a maximum of practical information.

INITIATION

1. Conduct a study of your school standardized test scores. Prepare charts and use them as the basis for discussion in faculty meetings where an analysis can be made and the faculty given the opportunity to develop specific plans for improvement.

2. Identify the rapid and the slow learners from test data. Hold conferences with the teachers about these pupils and help the teachers develop classroom instructional programs which provide more effectively for the varying abilities of these students.

3. Help the faculty identify one general area of instructional emphasis for the total school year. Some examples of these areas are: reading, spelling, note-taking, listening, and speaking. Develop plans for improving and evaluating the progress made in the selected area during the school year.

4. Set aside one day of the schedule every so often to visit personally the classrooms. Report the findings to the faculty, heavily emphasizing the positive but at the same time meeting the responsibility for recognizing instructional problems and providing the necessary organization to make it possible for the faculty to work on these problems.

5. Make constructive use of teacher complaints about the instructional program. Help the teacher to clarify and define the problem, determine its extent, and work toward the mutual development of concrete procedures for improving classroom instruction.

6. Promote creative thinking by teachers. Develop the concept that teachers have a professional responsibility to pass a creative idea on to the person who is in the best position to implement it. This operational principle should hold true regardless of subject matter lines or school

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organization. Insist that teachers have a responsibility to share their ideas.

7. Schedule systematic conferences with all new teachers to assist them with their teaching problems.

8. Ask the supervisors to help with the orientation of inexperienced teachers and teachers new to the system.

9. Give the faculty an opportunity to form interest groups and work on the improvement of certain areas of the curriculum. The problem areas might be determined in advance by a faculty open-ended opinionnaire.

10. Set aside one day a week out of the schedule and designate it as "Teacher Day." On this day, teachers are free to confer with the principal about the problems they are facing. Some principals in large schools meet with small groups in the teachers' room or in the cafeteria, serving light refreshments to add to the informality of the conferences. Do not lose sight of the original objective of "Teacher Day" and allow it to become a weekly social event.

11. Consult with supervisors before the school year begins for the purpose of becoming acquainted with new instructional materials, curriculum guides, and other teaching aids. Schedule future visits of the supervisors into the school to meet with the departments and develop improved understandings about the curriculum.

12. Plan teaching demonstrations for the faculty, making use of outstanding teachers from other schools and visiting consultants.

13. Utilize a school and community pupil personnel survey. The school curriculum can be evaluated by the teachers in the light of the results of this survey with plans made for improvement.

14. Keep such publications as the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* readily available to teachers and be alert to opportunities to refer teachers to research studies when they present their problems.

15. Provide for visitation between teachers in the school and for visitation of teachers in other schools. This promotes the exchange of good ideas and will result in improved teaching methods.

16. Schedule a panel of directors, supervisors, or consultants to initiate a discussion of desirable testing procedures and the correct use of test results.

17. Review in a professional faculty meeting understandings about grading policies and procedures.

18. Display recent books, new teaching aids, and other interesting instructional materials on the office counter, in the teachers' room, the library and other accessible school centers.

19. Schedule the reading supervisor for a demonstration on the teaching of reading.

20. Help teachers plan and develop a control type experiment in some area that is of greatest interest to them. Make use of central office resources and consultant assistance. Studies might be made of experi-

mental grouping, comparative teaching methods, or the use of new and untried instructional materials.

21. Plan a presentation of the school program to parents by the members of the faculty. This procedure should promote an immediate re-evaluation of the present curriculum by the teachers.

22. Encourage teachers who have won fellowships and scholarships for summer study to give the faculty a report upon their experience that might improve instruction in the classroom.

23. Encourages the art teacher to develop displays for teachers built around interesting ideas which teachers might use in their classrooms to strengthen their instructional programs.

24. Exhibit the outstanding work of students in a prominent showcase. The exhibits may consist of working models, well designed shop projects, artistic murals, interesting notebooks, unusual dioramas, as well as other items. Be sure to rotate the selection of work among different teachers.

25. Develop a teacher plan book with the faculty and discuss ways in which it might be used satisfactorily.

26. Ask experienced teachers to work with new teachers helping them to become acquainted with the school, assisting with the procurement of materials, explaining the school records, and generally making new teachers feel that they are a very important addition to the school faculty.

27. Send out a periodic news letter or bulletin informing teachers about new teaching techniques, instructional materials, recent research and highlighting the bright spots of classroom instruction within the school.

28. Help the teachers to develop a faculty handbook on school policies and procedures.

29. Encourage teachers in the development of classroom action research projects. This type of research will challenge the teacher and stimulate other teachers to evaluate the experience.

30. Explain and interpret the various phases of the instructional program to civic organizations and other community groups soliciting their understanding and cooperation in the initiation and development of new improvements.

31. Participate in the planning of instruction by educational radio and television.

ORGANIZATION

1. Schedule a group of teachers so they have the same classes of students through the school day and a common planning period. This "Little School" organization works well in junior high schools where there are few electives. The common planning period enables teachers to develop unified plans which provide for individual pupils who may have special problems.

2. Organize a school curriculum council composed of representatives from the various departments within the school. Some of the responsibilities of the curriculum council would be to coordinate the curriculum both within a grade level and between grade levels. The council should also plan for the sharing of desirable instructional materials and promising teaching procedures. It could also study the strengths and weaknesses of the school's curriculum, and initiate plans for improvement.

3. Invite key parents who have a sound understanding of instruction to participate in the development of plans to improve the school curriculum. Also utilize talents of these parents to evolve effective ways of interpreting the school program to your community.

4. Schedule a series of departmental meetings for the purpose of evaluating such items as content, teaching procedures, and instructional materials. Interested sub-groups may wish to develop special supplementary instructional materials. Resource units could be constructed around new developments such as the theory of sets and fields in modern mathematics, nuclear energy in science, or current problems in the social studies.

5. Organize a school-community "Little White House Conference" with the faculty. This will enable community leaders to confer with teachers about some of the critical issues in education and to determine direction for the future.

6. Work with the scientists in your area to develop a laboratory experience for a few of your selected students who are interested in becoming scientists. Such an experience could replace study halls and other areas on the students' schedules which may be of less value to them.

7. Prepare a list of parents having special interests and competencies who are willing to serve as resource people to the students.

8. Participate in state, regional, or system-wide curriculum improvement projects.

9. Arrange for a section of the cafeteria to be used as an ever-changing art exhibit. Students as well as teachers should be involved in setting up the exhibit.

10. Organize a faculty study of new curriculum guides. Have teachers responsible for carefully studying in advance different sections of the guide and make a brief presentation to the faculty, outlining the most effective ways for using the guide. Follow the presentation with small group discussions and evaluations.

11. Utilize resource people from the universities and schedule meetings for the purpose of articulating the school program with the universities.

12. Encourage teachers to use the in-service training opportunities which are broadcast over commercial or educational radio and television stations.

13. Arrange for the faculty representatives on the system-wide curriculum committees to report the progress of these committees. Follow the reports with a faculty discussion and develop recommendations from the faculty which the representatives can channel back to the county-wide committees.

14. Develop a series of color slides of the school program in action. Such slides can be used to interpret the program to parents or to share ideas with other schools in the system.

15. Organize a school-wide, self-study, in-service training program. Be sure to involve parents and pupils in this procedure.

16. Arrange a joint meeting of teachers in related subjects such as: social studies and language arts, or science and mathematics. The purpose of the meeting would be to develop improved coordination among the related subject areas.

17. Work toward the development of a system-wide curriculum evaluative organization that will result in the improved articulation of program from kindergarten through the senior high school.

18. Organize systematic follow-up studies of school graduates to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the instructional program. Senior high schools usually make use of questionnaires to former students for the purpose of obtaining the desired information. Junior high schools frequently request summaries of standardized achievement test results from the senior high schools and utilize this data to plan improvement in the instructional program.

19. Work with the faculty in organizing and continuously evaluating a differentiated curriculum for rapid and slow learners. For example, the mathematics program in the senior high school for rapid learners could include analytical geometry and introductory calculus. The mathematics program for the slow learner might end with everyday mathematics emphasizing the basic arithmetic processes.

20. Organize a system of grade weighting so that students taking the more difficult courses are not handicapped in grade ratings when compared with students who take the less difficult courses. This system would be applicable to the honor roll, cumulative guidance records, and college entrance applications. Such a system encourages students to take the more difficult courses and to receive full credit for their efforts.

EVALUATION

1. Arrange for the evaluation to take place in an atmosphere of honesty, objectivity, and as free from personal threat as possible. Avoid defensiveness and keep the focus upon the results and not upon people. Always accept some personal responsibility for the results.

2. Develop a statistical analysis of the data which evaluates the objectives of the program that lend themselves to statistical measurement. Ask for supervisory or consultant assistance in the evaluation of the data.

3. Develop a subjective analysis in those areas which cannot be measured readily statistically. Utilize such instruments as rating scales, questionnaires, logs, interviews with students, observation, and case studies.

4. Make use of evaluation teams or of consultants who may study the program and report their findings and recommendations to the faculty.

SUMMARY

The principal must continuously utilize all of the factors in the school situation which might contribute to the professional growth of the teachers. To work toward this objective, he must stress teamwork and help teachers gain an ever widening understanding of the relationship of their particular areas of instruction to the total program.

The problems under study must be practical problems which are of genuine concern to the teachers. The problems should not be artificially manufactured upon demand nor should they be problems which are subtly sold to the teachers as their own. This does not mean that the principal abdicates his responsibility to help broaden the horizons for teachers and provide them with opportunities to develop new understandings about total school problems. However, this objective should be accomplished in an atmosphere of intellectual honesty and with a sensitive consideration for the reactions of teachers.

The problems should be carefully defined and stated in simple, direct language. Teachers must have a clear cut understanding about the kinds of instructional problems which they may select for study. Areas which are the prerogatives of the administration or the school board should be avoided. The problems should fall within the capabilities of the teachers and the time available to do the work. The principal should do everything possible to help the teachers be aware of their rate of progress and to encourage them in their efforts.

Working relationships should be very flexible as the personalities of the teachers are many and varied. Some teachers require considerable encouragement and support while other teachers possess a great deal of initiative and need only the approval and recognition of their efforts by the principal. Therefore, the type of instructional leadership exerted by the alert principal should remain flexible and will differ in each situation. A competent principal will always work toward making curriculum improvement a cooperative responsibility.

Experimentation for Curriculum in Fields of Current Interest

JUDSON S. ERNE

ACTION IN SOCIAL STUDIES RESEARCH

THE field of social studies is so pertinent to the needs of youth today because of the emphasis that we must place on seeking peace for the world. The mastery of facts is necessary in social studies courses, not because there is something inherently good about mastering facts, but rather because such mastery is necessary if the student is to understand motivating forces behind historical developments. But unless such understanding follows, fact memorization has little merit. The use of more supplementary material and more intensive research and a more thorough understanding of historical writing will give valuable insight into the reasons peoples of the world responded as they did in various countries and in different times in history. Thought-provoking panel discussions, research papers, and literature prove much more beneficial in stimulating the study of history than does the all-to-common approach that stops with the presentation of just historical facts. Students should learn to understand and appreciate the thinking of leaders and peoples the world over, from the time of early history to the present. They should be disciplined to attach primary importance to basic causes that have influenced the different perspectives that one observes among people with pronounced differences in their historical and ethical backgrounds.

American history, government, and economics courses will be more meaningful if a practical learning situation is presented to the students. By encouraging some students to write historical stories set in different eras of American History, by leading others to write and produce plays based on history, and by assigning still others to write research papers discussing the historical facts of years ago and interpreting the significance of the facts for coping with contemporary problems, the instructor may stimulate a learning experience that would be unforgettable to the students. In such a problem as inter-racial relationships, students should be encouraged to study the background of the various races of the world and the effects that have been displayed by the integration of races throughout history. They should study the psychological problems that are associated with integration in different parts of our country and then come to conclusions concerning establishing integration under the most favorable circumstances.

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In government classes, learning should take place through such projects as actual mock court with jury trial; participation in classroom political conventions, patterned after those held in our states and on the national scenes; classroom legislative sessions; and interviews with government officials. These interviews are likely to be most valuable when the interviewers concentrate on the criteria that officials use when they make governmental decisions.

Students can do much valuable research into proposed city needs and ordinances by actually acquiring definite facts and polling the opinion of the public and then presenting these facts and opinions to local governmental officials. Students' actions today are very newsworthy, their actions in stimulating public awareness by presenting all the facts and all sides of an issue would be a service to the community and would be an effective way of bringing problems out into the open. Social problems courses of today would be made more interesting and effective by students' actually doing research into such areas as local housing facilities, causes for the location of local slum areas, and possibilities for removing or improving blighted areas. Another basic social problem, the investigation of which would make such a course meaningful, is the plight of the aged. Still, this type of study could follow the delinquent youngster through his home and school community environment. And there is the possibility of doing research into the relationship between automobile accidents, street and road conditions, stop signs, consumption of liquor, and age of automobiles. Investment buying, understanding of insurance ownership, and the effect of installment buying upon our economy can all be studied by actual student participation in research, through reading supplementary materials, and by using the questionnaire and interview method. The whole social studies program in our secondary schools today should be revamped from the dull day-to-day recitation of textbook facts to critical, analytical thinking. In the field of social studies, the inquiring mind should be encouraged; and the student should be taught to seek his own answers through various methods of research into past and current social problems.

ACTION IN SCIENCE CURRICULUM IN THE ATOMIC AGE

It has been known for several years that the high-school science curriculum would be undergoing a systematic investigation intended to point the way to better and more course offerings. The colleges and universities throughout the nation have found that, in order to meet the needs of industry for engineers and scientists, they must train more specialists and technicians rather than stress the general education of such students. Because of this fact the secondary schools are placed in the position of presenting a broad curriculum in mathematics and science and of offering intense preparation in these subjects as a background for future advance study in schools of higher education. This situation means that students graduating from the secondary schools are

expected to know the following basic topics upon entering the college or university class in science: (1) the basic concept of the science course to be taken; (2) mathematics sufficient to work fundamental calculus; and (3) efficiency in solving problems through research.

It has been concluded that the average secondary school should offer a three-semester course in the physical and biological sciences and that science-minded students should have a possible five years of mathematics. The question of how this type of math-science program could be established without depriving students of a good fundamental education in the language arts, social studies, and foreign languages has frequently been asked. The following plan is suggested as at least a partial answer to the question.

Because mathematics is the "tool of science," the following suggestions for implementation into the mathematics curriculum in the secondary school are presented. With proper guidance directed to capable students the following topics might be added: (1) Elements of Sets, (2) Statistics, (3) Abstract Algebra, (4) Symbolic Logic, (5) Analytical Geometry, and (6) Elementary Calculus.

The biological sciences seem to have kept stride with modern trends, for advanced courses under the names of botany, biology, and zoology are usually offered. The one sad note in the field of biological science is that by state law the student is usually required to have two semesters in a laboratory science and biology becomes the "off-fall" course in the science curriculum. The biological sciences should have the same status in our school curriculum as that accorded chemistry and physics.

The physics program needs to be expanded to three semesters to cover the necessary topics and material adequately. General physics can usually be covered in two semesters, but, if insight is to be given into modern physics topics, a third semester must be offered to students with the ability and interest required for advanced scientific study. It has been found that an approach similar to that suggested for physics is feasible for the teaching of chemistry.

The problem of how and when these courses could be integrated into an already over-loaded curriculum is a real one. The following suggestions have some practicability: (1) evening classes for advanced groups; (2) before-school classes (7 A.M. to 8 A.M. have proved to be very successful); (3) a stimulated summer school program in science, offering more time for laboratory research.

It is evident from the foregoing statements that the science teacher is the key to the success of any program inaugurated. The science teacher must be willing to sacrifice some of his own time in order that he may be adequately prepared to teach atomic-age and space-age science in our secondary schools. He must be willing to return to summer school, or, if necessary, to take a years' leave of absence with the assistance of a science foundation program to keep abreast with advanced scientific research. This teacher must take an active part in professional organiza-

tions and have an open mind when confronted with new methods of research in science. The school administrator must be willing to provide the instructional supplies necessary for the teaching of modern science and must be cognizant of the fact that the science teacher will be more effective if he is given some time to experiment and do research. Industries in the community should be willing, whenever possible, to employ local science teachers during the summer months, not as regular factory employees but in the research laboratory, so that the teacher's yearly income is adequate for a fruitful life. The science teacher dedicated to this job of stimulating interest in scientific knowledge among secondary-school students, will become one of the outstanding members of a school faculty.

The science curriculum in a modern high school should include the following courses:

Biology	I & II
Botany	I & II
Zoology	I
Physiology	I
Chemistry	I & II
Chemistry	III (Taught by the research method)
Physics	I (Mechanics)
Physics	II (Heat-light-sound)
Physics	III (Electricity and nuclear physics)
Electronics	I
Aeronautics	I

It is also suggested that, for bright youngsters in a modern high school, the following courses could be offered through evening classes or in summer school: Solid Geometry, Modern Geometry, Astronomy, Theory of Equations (Determinants), and Slide Rule and Logarithms

Science and mathematics are so essential to our future well being, to human progress, and to the peace of the world that all schools must re-evaluate their present curriculum and take a broad new look into the opportunities of the future.

While the teaching of science and the encouragement of scientific research are being emphasized, school personnel must exercise caution lest they forget that they are charged with teaching students to write, to read, and to express what they are thinking; to develop the aesthetic and cultural aspects of their lives; and to develop a thorough understanding both of the people of the world and of their own way of life. Scientific data and research, often thought to be synonymous with destruction, should be identified with peaceful pursuits. Science must be a contributing factor to a better life.

ACTION IN DEVELOPING READING ABILITIES

The school that would build a good program aimed at improving the reading skills, habits, and attitudes of its students must provide a quiet

room, plenty of good books, and instruction that shows students how to read for the story instead of getting bogged down on the words; for such is the recipe which will prove that reading good books is fun. If the type of instruction that develops a good reading program is to be realized, the program must include sympathetic teachers who will discuss the books with the readers, a laboratory of films, speed testing essays, vocabulary drills, and pacing machines to show the student what he is accomplishing. In such a program the fun of reading becomes a skill which transfers into every other branch of learning which requires reading.

Schools are challenged by a number of problems which have complicated the teaching picture within the last few years. *First*, due to the widening of education to include many other fields besides the "three R's," and due to the theory of "socialized promotion" which feels that a student must be with his chronological age group, the high school is getting a significant number of young people who are unable to read the material required for the ninth-grade course of study. *Second*, comic books and other pictorial magazines which have reduced reading to a minimum have become a popular field of literature and have supplanted serious reading; and *third*, the television has supplanted reading in many homes. Deficiencies in students' reading skills, then, present a gigantic challenge.

In most secondary schools, the ninth-grade English course is a full course of grammar, literature, spelling, and written and oral composition; to curtail any of these activities would be to weaken the English program. A course completely separated from this ninth-grade English program could be inaugurated which would feature a developmental reading program.

Students enrolling in the initial high-school year should be divided into four different categories and scheduled into as many class sections as are necessary. Non-readers would find no particular benefit in working in a developmental program; they should be placed in special sections for remedial work. Other students could be placed in three parallel groups called laboratory, free reading, and reading-problem groups. Thus a student might attend a laboratory class on Monday and Wednesday and the free reading class on Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday; or, if he should have developed reading problems caused by a deficiency in vocabulary, and eye condition, nervous reaction to the machines, or another type emotional strain, he would be assigned to a reading-problems class until the problem hindering his progress no longer was a major problem. A second class of students would be alternating with the first class and individuals in the third group would be ready to take part as their reading problems diminished. Pupils who, because they had developed an extremely high proficiency in reading, would not need to use the mechanical pacers twice a week, could find time for extra reading, work as library assistants, or assist instructors in other departments.

As students develop their reading speed and comprehension, those in rapid reading classes could spend some time studying speech, library science, journalism, dramatics, and even elementary office practice.

In such a laboratory developmental reading program, the pupil competes only against his own record. The slogan set up by Dr. Russell Cooper of Purdue University is "A poor reader cannot speed up, but a good reader can slow down whenever he needs to do it." A pupil should be assisted in increasing his reading speed, but at the same time he should keep testing his comprehension to be certain that he understands what he is reading. Effective devices that might be used in such a program are *S.R.A. Essay Tests* and *Cuffin-Cosper Essay Tests* which are excellent for use with superior students. Films are another effective device to be used in developmental reading, especially the type used with the controlled reader projector. Mechanical pacers, are necessary equipment in a developmental reading laboratory.

An ideal situation would be freedom from grade awards; but since such a program would be given in a public high school and credit would be given for the course, grade awards become a necessity. A contract plan in free reading could be established as part of the course: a "C" grade for 700 pages or three books per six weeks grading period, a "B" grade for 1100 pages or four books, and an "A" grade for 1500 pages or five books. Pupils who are considering entering college should be required to read books which would give them a rich literary background for their future education; the non-college students should be encouraged to develop interests in various areas of reading. Pupils with reading problems should be helped in finding books which are suitable for their abilities and which appeal to their interests. Teachers of free reading classes could find much valuable material in a book list published by the National Library Association called *Patterns in Reading*.

The reading-problems teacher should work in connection with the school nurse in helping the student to discover his own weakness in reading skill. Oftentimes it is a physical problem needing medical treatment. Eye difficulties, lack of concentration caused by home environment, and problems of over-all health many times could be a detriment to a student's reading ability. Most students that might be placed in reading-problems classes are those with limited vocabularies; they are likely to read books at the third- to sixth-grade levels. Teachers of such classes should teach phonics, oral reading, and group participation in vocabulary building games.

Useful materials for such classes would be the skill building readers of the *Readers Digest*; *Word Attack* authored by Clyde Roberts, published by Harcourt Brace and Company; *Teen-Age Tales* by Ruth Strange, Regina Harvey, and Ralph Roberts; and other supplementary books. Such a developmental reading program could successfully be inaugurated in many secondary schools. With a proper orientation program for parents, faculty members, and students, the reading program could

develop into a very stimulating process for all participants. Pupils will find that improving their skills in reading causes reading to become more interesting and often real enjoyment. When students become able to understand what they are reading, they find more success in completing their daily assignments for all their courses.

Such a developmental reading program should be evaluated continually. A follow-up program or refresher course using the laboratory equipment and a program of encouragement to young people to continue their reading should be established in their regular English courses throughout the pupils' high-school careers.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Many in the field of public school education are concerned in regard to the lag between what is known about good education and what is common practice in schools today. Old projects are being overhauled; new projects are being initiated. So often there has been a tendency to condemn school practices rather than an attempt to understand why such practices are initiated.

It is comparatively easy to organize a program of instruction that looks good on paper. However, the question arises as to the extent to which instructional procedures are realizing the objectives they were designed to achieve. Because of this, a continuous process of evaluating curriculum changes should be considered.

In the final analysis the criterion for judging the value of curriculum work is the improvement in the experiences of those students it effects within the bounds of the secondary school. Regardless of an extensive program or a faculty sparked with enthusiasm, unless the final analysis shows definitely that the educational experiences of pupils are changed in a beneficial way, the study cannot be considered successful.

The Use of Achievement Tests in Curriculum Development

M. M. BLACK

THERE is nothing new about achievement testing. I suppose the mythical characters of Ug and Og may have tested their strength outside the openings of their caves to see who was the stronger. Students naturally try to out-achieve one another, whether it be in games of physical skill or mental gymnastics. Later, the struggle for success in our highly competitive system forces us to test our abilities against the best which the industrial, business, and professional fields have to offer.

It was natural that the earliest form of testing in the classroom should be the measurement of acquired subject matter. To be sure, it was measured on an arbitrary standard determined by the instructor as he developed a test—often no more than ten arithmetic problems, each assigned a numerical value of ten, so that one hundred was the top score. Those of us who grew up on this kind of evaluation can vouch for the fact that we were motivated to memorize enough of the required content to keep us respectable in our own group. We did not know nor did we care how we compared with students in other classes, other schools, and other school systems. We were the victims of localism, blissfully unaware that we might be suffering from an unjustifiable case of exaggerated ego if we made a high score in competition with a group of "slow learners."

With the development of standard achievement tests, a new scientific tool was placed in the hands of educators. Slowly the realization came that learning might now be measured against a norm with reliability and validity. School systems experimented with testing and retesting, but in all too many cases the tests were administered, scored, and filed. In some cases, only the superintendent knew the results. In other systems, the principal was allowed to "glimpse" the sacred discoveries. With this new knowledge about the achievement of boys and girls available for diagnosis, remedial work, and grouping, the school authorities usually stored it away in the vault and promptly forgot it. Perhaps I have exaggerated the lack of concern for the data from early standard achievement tests; nevertheless, there is some justification for such an observation.

Recently, however, a new era of testing has been thrust upon us. The necessity for quickly discovering the talents of young men during World War II brought with it the money and the manpower to develop tests to meet the need. How well the new tests, along with some of the old, pinpointed aptitudes, abilities, and achievements of our military personnel,

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I do not know. But it did create a new emphasis on testing, which carried over to the public schools.

Assuming we have some committees organized and ready to work on curriculum improvement, our first question naturally is where shall we start. More often than not, we will decide to look at our present program rather critically. For example, the public concern over student achievement in mathematics and science brought about a state-wide testing program in Oklahoma. The *Iowa Tests of Educational Development* were administered to about 90,000 high-school students. The results, contrary to expectations, indicated that the ones who took the test were above average in science. However, they were slightly below norm in mathematics and English. Achievement testing can be of great help when the public asks questions. Comparisons with a recognized standard become available immediately. Adverse criticisms can sometimes be answered promptly and satisfactorily. Critics then become allies. If, on the other hand, a deficiency is discovered, long-range plans can be put in motion. In the state-wide testing program, we discovered that we were slightly below the national average in mathematics and English in our own school system. Committees have been organized to study and improve the teaching of mathematics and English from the first grade through the twelfth. An analysis of our present competency was the first step toward making improvement.

In Tulsa we have been using standard achievement tests from kindergarten through grade twelve on a systematic basis so long that I will not attempt to give a starting year. The results of these tests are made available to every person on our staff. They are used in conferences with students and parents. Students are not only encouraged to investigate the results but are also called to counselors' offices for the specific purpose of self-analysis. In such conferences all pertinent objective data is disclosed to the student. Future plans are evolved for him. Thereby his curriculum is tailormade for him.

When sufficient test data is available, homogeneous grouping will, in my judgment, prove to be the best administrative device for curriculum improvement. By careful selection in terms of their educational ability, we can place them in instructional groups that will challenge these abilities to the utmost.

This selection process must begin in the very early grades in order to capitalize on the intellectual curiosity of the youngsters before they become discouraged and lose hope trying to do tasks beyond their ability. By the time they arrive at high school, their educational ability will have been accurately established. They can then be moved into accelerated, average, or slow learning groups without the loss of valuable time. A battery of achievement test scores from each year's work, available to high-school counselors when the students first enroll in high school, will enable counselors to help students make wise educational and vocational choices.

Homogeneous grouping, on a broad basis, has been practiced in our school for many years. Wisely used and adequately explained to parents, it has been our best administrative device for meeting individual needs of boys and girls. It has literally determined the curriculum to be followed by each group. The top quartile is placed in one section, our two middle quartiles in another section, and our lowest quartile in still another. I should hasten to add that our students are grouped homogeneously only in reading courses.

Through the years we have frequently made changes in curriculum offerings, always in terms of student need. Test results have recently been used in the selection of some students for advanced and enriched sections. A very successful course, now in its fourth year, is one we call Advanced Physical Science. This course for seniors combines the study of chemistry, physics, and mathematics from a pre-engineering point of view. It utilizes community science resources through cooperation with local industry and business firms. Elementary science research principles are stressed, and some practice is given in their application to a high-school-level science research project. Experience has shown that those students who have patterns of high interest in science and engineering coupled with a consistently high level of achievement test scores in previous science and mathematics are well suited to the studies undertaken in this course. Further preparation for a science-based career is sought through the concurrent course requirements of physics, solid geometry, and trigonometry. This course has helped a group of young men and women meet their need for a greater challenge in mathematics and science. At the same time we feel we are doing our part to accelerate the training of more scientists.

Another section for advanced students is one in Creative Writing. There is nothing new about this, but we do find it meets the needs of another talented group of students. They have been very successful in writing research papers and writing poetry and essay. They could not do this without the challenge of one another and a teacher who pushes them toward the limit of their abilities.

Other curricular offerings that would not be possible without testing and grouping are: College Preparatory English, Advanced Electricity (Electronics), Advanced History, Advanced Mathematics (Calculus), Advanced Biology, Advanced Chemistry, and Advanced Foreign Language (four years). Our large student body makes sectioning rather easy, and such grouping places students in a more challenging learning environment. We believe they achieve more.

In our middle group, we find a very typical heterogeneous population. On the other hand, there is enough homogeneity to bring out competition and good achievement. Here are found many college preparatory students, in fact some very capable ones. Not so many in this group enroll in the advanced classes, but all take the recognized basic high-school courses.

The lower sections are, generally speaking, composed of the non-readers. Materials and teaching techniques are adapted to the needs of

the group. In some cases I have seen these slow learners achieve more, percentage-wise, in a semester than the more rapid groups have accomplished. The curriculum for these sections becomes almost entirely general education. For several years our school has enrolled slow learners with an I.Q. range from 70, or borderline, to 85, or subnormal, in a special block of core subjects at each of the grade levels. English, history, and science teachers of this block have a planning period together during the day to formulate a curriculum suitable to the group's abilities. Pupils remain with the same instructor in English for the three-year high-school period in order to educate them more satisfactorily in the useful skills of speaking, listening, and practical writing. Practical and constructive usage are key words descriptive of the materials selected to educate them. As a part of this utility learning, they write letters applying for jobs, requesting recommendations, and ordering materials; they fill out actual application forms, and they practice correct language usage required in a job. The emphasis is upon communication skills and good citizenship. I believe these are the basic ingredients of an appropriate curriculum for slow learners.

As a result of a system-wide, consistent, standard achievement testing program, I am convinced that we know our students' capabilities fairly well. We have detected the need for curriculum changes for our most advanced students and have attempted to meet it. We have carried on a good strong program for our average students. We have also met some of the needs of our very slow learners, even some of our special ones who have been placed in classes for the handicapped with specially trained teachers.

Many of our students take the *National Merit Scholarship Tests* and *College Board Tests*. The results have not always been satisfactory to some of them, but, as a school, we believe our students have ranked fairly well. The fact that our students are regularly taking achievement tests enables them to approach these tests with a feeling of ease and confidence.

Much more needs to be done. No doubt administrative changes will be made in the future which will enable students of equal ability to study together regardless of chronological age. Achievement tests will find a further unique place in selecting students for learning experiences within their range. When we have found a way to eliminate the loss now going on in many classrooms because some students are not being challenged, we will really be making the right kind of curriculum improvement.

In the meantime, we must continue to handle millions of high-school youth in large classes, sometimes with poorly equipped teachers, and in many cases an inadequate curriculum. It is my contention that we can best provide the appropriate curricular experiences for high-school youth by providing those which fit the individual; i.e., a very advanced academic program for the gifted, general and vocational courses for the middle group, and minimum essential programs with a vocational emphasis for the slow learners.

A Patron-Faculty-Student Curriculum Committee

JAMES F. CONOVER

WHILE serving as a member of the curriculum committee of the Indiana Association of Junior and Senior High-School Principals, the writer became conscious of the need for a high-school curriculum committee. He suggested the need for a curriculum committee to the faculty and immediately obtained five volunteers. At the end of the year, this committee, aware of the excellent contributions made by the student council, invited five students to participate in curriculum study. At the close of the second year, the pupils, recognizing the interest of parents in the adult organizations identified with the high school, recommended that patrons be included as members of the curriculum committee.

Today, twenty-one teachers, pupils, and parents meet regularly each school month in the interest of curriculum improvement. Broad representation is considered essential and no single interest group is dominant. Each individual who is invited to participate has demonstrated interest in curriculum and willingness to accept responsibility. Members consider participation to be a privilege.

The seven teachers on the committee represent departments and special subject areas and include two department heads. Too, teachers responsible for co-curricular programs are included. A representative of the guidance program is also a member of the committee.

Pupil members are members of the student council, two each from the tenth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-year classes and one from the ninth-year class. Pupils represent different degrees of abilities and interests. They include a representative from the subject interest clubs and one from the service clubs.

Patrons represent different occupational, racial, and economic backgrounds and also the three adult groups identified with the school; namely, the PTA, the Band Boosters' Club, and the Mothers' Club. About sixty per cent of the patrons of the school are members of one or more of these organizations.

The committee recommended that no member serve more than three years. Some members may serve one or two years. Invitations to individuals who may be replacements are extended by the chairman of the committee after a conference with the school administrators.

The principal in no way attempts to influence the curriculum committee. He confers with the committee upon invitation, and cooperates in every way possible. He encourages the members of the committee in their efforts, but always stays in the background. Needless to say, he eagerly awaits the committee reports.

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The work of the committee was unstructured. Members determined the program, after adopting a philosophy. They decided that the efforts of the committee should be toward identifying and studying problems and making recommendations. Minutes are kept of each meeting and are presented to the principal. A report and recommendations are made at the end of each year.

The committee agreed that acquisition of functional knowledge rather than knowledge for its own sake is desirable; that objectives should be stated in the terms of pupil behavior; that curriculum revision should be a continuing process; that arousing intellectual curiosity is basic; and that the curriculum is the sum total of learning experiences. The committee agreed to consider the problems of learning and of teaching; the place of school in democratic society; demands that society may reasonably make on the schools, and other factors affecting the learning of boys and girls. They were concerned with learning about the needs of the local community, community resources which could make contributions, testing programs, and curriculum materials and courses.

The committee "rolled up its sleeves" and did research work on its own initiative. Members of the staff of Indiana State Teachers College were invited to counsel with the committee. Resource materials were compiled. Questionnaires were sent to schools where promising curriculum experimentation was indicated. (Note: principals answered 90%, certainly a tribute to the principals' professional attitude.) The committee conferred frequently with members of the faculty. Procedures, such as stated above, provided the committee members with materials for study and information essential to reaching intelligent decisions.

Studies with which the committee has been concerned during the past five years include:

1. Gifted student
2. Remedial programs
3. Testing—influence of standardized tests
4. Use of library
5. Reading
6. Theme writing
7. Requirements and electives
8. Seventy-minute period
9. Study halls
10. Science and mathematics
11. Textbooks
12. Homogeneous grouping
13. Co-curricular activities
14. Citizenship education
15. Supervised study

AN EXAMPLE OF KIND OF CONTRIBUTIONS

An example of the kind of contributions which a curriculum committee can make is related below. This report was made after a year's study of areas in the school where citizenship education could be effected.

1. Good citizens understand the premises which are basic to American liberty:

- a. Dignity and worth of the individual
- b. Responsibility of the individual
- c. Change can be brought about by legislation, by orderly process rather than by force
- d. The government is the servant of the people
- e. "Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed."

2. Good citizens use their understanding of these premises to guide their thinking and acting.

3. Good citizens actively carry out their responsibilities as citizens.

Elementary and *intermediate* schools contribute to good citizenship in the following ways:

- a. School patrols
- b. Squads that keep halls, campus, etc. clean
- c. Campaigns such as one school's "Don't Be a Litterbug"
- d. Field trips, well educated, with adequate preparation for understanding given before
- e. Troops of Brownies, Cubs, Girl Scouts, and Boy Scouts
- f. Remedial reading
- g. Guidance (intermediate level)
- h. Student councils

Senior high school contributions include:

- a. Choice of electives provides opportunity to evaluate and make decisions
- b. Extracurricular activities offer opportunities to hold office, elect officers, serve on committees
- c. Counselors and sponsors
- d. Guidance
- e. Social studies affiliated with the Citizenship Education Project
- f. Mathematics and science enable the student to think clearly and logically—to face facts
- g. Social studies and the languages bring about an appreciation of our heritage, an understanding of the premises upon which our way of life is built
- h. English and the language arts develop speech and reading. A good citizen is articulate
- i. Physical education, health, safety, etc. stress the importance of a sound, clean body as well as sound mind
- j. The manual arts and commerce help the student to choose and become efficient in some way of earning a living. This also, includes courses in home economics, family living, sociology, and the like. Clarence Darrow said that in sixty years of practice in the criminal courts, "I have never met a criminal who was a skilled workman."
- k. Association of students of various races and nationalities tends to develop understanding and the importance of the contributions of various peoples to universal suture.
- l. Testing programs enable the teacher to know the student and the student to know himself better.

- m. The public school at all levels is perhaps the best single illustration of democracy in action. The student may participate without any barrier of race, color, creed, or economic status.
- n. Students serve in public relations programs through speech, work, radio broadcasts, essays, meeting with service clubs, working with civic organizations. They contribute to the Community Chest; work in Junior Red Cross; serve through projects of the Y-Teens; learn that a good citizen gives unselfish service to his family, school, and community.
- o. The school teaches the correct meaning of propaganda and pressure groups. Students discuss all sides of a problem, and are urged and encouraged to make choices on the basis of intelligence, not emotion.
- p. Student council and student government.

RESULTS

The patron-faculty-student curriculum committee has been a definite asset to the high school. It has proved to be a reliable "sounding board" when change or experiment has been planned. The school administration is alert to the thinking of parents, teachers, and pupils through the reports of the committee.

The committee has been both enthusiastic and practical in its functioning. Members have been faithful to their responsibilities. Parents have proved to be excellent public relations people as they interpret curriculum needs to adult groups. Teacher members have been instrumental in breaking down department barriers and developing appreciation of each other's contributions and problems. Pupils, through student council reporting, have a better understanding of the school's efforts to improve educational opportunities.

The committee motivated teachers of each department and special subject areas to re-state their philosophies and objectives. Departments are working together with understanding. The faculty respects the efforts of the curriculum committee and has been very cooperative.

The principal's attitude was adequately expressed by a parent member of the patron-faculty-student curriculum committee when he said, "This curriculum improvement and revision business is a never-ending process. This committee should be a permanent part of the school."

Teacher-Pupil-Laymen Plan for Curriculum Improvement

ORVILLE KORN

ANY group of teachers, laymen, and students who meet in a series of meetings for the purpose of improving the curriculum of their school soon learn that it is a slow and complicated process, requiring much time, study, and research by those participating. This is due to the fact that any improvement in the curriculum must evolve from the faculty and the administration in the form of new ideas and concepts, changed attitudes, inspired action, and improved methods of instruction. Development may seem slow, but the results (after six or nine months of work) will be gratifying and well worth the time spent in meetings, study, and research.

ORGANIZING FACULTY, LAYMEN, AND STUDENTS FOR CURRICULUM WORK

The organization of our faculty for the purpose of improving our curriculum began in a faculty meeting in January 1954. The purpose and work of the Oklahoma Secondary-School Curriculum Improvement Commission were explained. A discussion and study of the *Guide for the Improvement of Curriculum in Oklahoma Secondary Schools* followed. It was suggested we make further study of the *Guide* and organize as a curriculum improvement group. A general chairman and a recording secretary were elected. We asked the Board of Education to grant us released time, one day each month, for the study of curriculum improvement. The third Monday of each month, the classes were shortened in the afternoon and school was dismissed at 2:15. During the first two years the group met in the homemaking department. After the completion of a new senior high school, the group started meeting in the library. Light refreshments and a social time were the order of business for the first fifteen minutes. The group remained in session until 4:30.

Following the suggestions in the *Guide*, the group asked various organizations in the community to select one member to represent them on the curriculum improvement group and to report back to their respective organizations. When we first started our work in curriculum improvement, we had twelve laymen and the faculty of the senior high school. This has been expanded, and at the present time includes the junior high-school faculty (12 members), the senior high-school faculty (19 members), three students from our student council, and twenty laymen representing the following groups and organizations: one member from each of the three elementary PTA'S, three from the junior high PTA one from each of the following groups: PTA Council, Twentieth Cen-

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tury Club, Research Club, Rotary, Kiwanis, A.B.C., Rotary Anns, American Legion Auxiliary, Ministerial Alliance, American Association of University Women, Business and Professional Women, Elks Lodge, and the Board of Education. This is a total of 54 members. The laymen are very regular in attendance. Most of our meetings have had 75 to 80 per cent of them present.

The laymen and students are an important influence in the group. Other than representating the thinking of their group and the patrons of the district, they are a stabilizing factor and keep the meetings from becoming "just another faculty meeting."

WE DECIDE ON A FOLLOW-UP STUDY

One of the first projects the group decided on was to make a follow-up study of former graduates for the purpose of getting their opinions concerning the curriculum of Alva High School, also how well we had been serving individual and community needs. Three classes were selected for the study, a pre-war, 1940; war-time, 1946; and a post-war, 1949. The group was divided into three committees: (1) details and contents of the questionnaires, (2) addresses of former graduates, (3) compiling the data and reporting the results. It was decided to make a sample survey. The names of boys and girls were arranged alphabetically and every third name selected. One of the most gratifying results of the survey was that all but three of the questionnaires were returned. Some of the most helpful information we received from the study was as follows: the graduates were distributed over 26 occupations in 11 states, roughly a third remaining in the Alva area; another third living in other parts of Oklahoma; and another third outside the state. The girls were more widely distributed than the boys. Approximately one third of the boys were engaged in or connected with wheat farming. The majority of both sexes had some education beyond high school; most common number of years: one or four. Those who had no education beyond high school rated their high-school work higher and more valuable than those who went to college. Forty-eight per cent indicated satisfaction with their education. Sixty-eight per cent of those employed were satisfied with their work.

OTHER PROJECTS AND AREAS OF STUDY

It will not be possible in this article to give in detail all the areas of study and the projects which have originated in our curriculum improvement group. I will describe a few of our activities to give an idea how we function.

Each year at the first meeting the group makes a brief review of the work of the past year and decides which projects need further study and work and which have been completed. They also select new problems and areas in which to work. This is done by dividing the membership into five or six buzz groups. Each group will be composed of teachers,

laymen, and, in some groups, students. They meet in classrooms where each member is encouraged to express himself concerning items and problems which are of interest to him. These are brought back to the entire group and compiled under related headings or areas for study and discussion. Each member selects the areas in which he is most interested, making a first, second, and third choice. These are given to a program committee which divides the members evenly in the various areas of study and participation.

During the school year of 1955-56, the Curriculum Improvement Group selected "Developing Leadership by Developing Student Responsibility" as an area for improvement. The work was divided into four areas: (1) Developing Responsibility in the School, (2) Developing Responsibility in the Home, (3) Developing Responsibility in the Church, (4) Developing Responsibility in the Community. Programs and panel discussions were presented before the group on each of the four topics. A few of the suggestions presented by a student panel were:

1. Teachers take too much responsibility in a project, especially when the instructor is anxious for a perfected product.
2. Teachers should be more accessible to students for conference on school and personal problems.
3. Work should be planned in class with students.
4. Student responsibility is a student's knowing that he has a job to do and that it is not the responsibility of the faculty.
5. More class planning and group discussion with free opinions helping students think and use their own minds.
6. Teenagers should be given a choice if possible; otherwise, proper authority should be used and maintained.
7. Teen problems are bigger than adults believe or realize.

It may appear to the reader that much of the work of our Curriculum Improvement Group has been theory and discussion with very little action. I can assure you that has not been the case. Most of the important changes, practices, and policies that have brought improvement in our curriculum during the past three and one-half years have been started or carried to completion by this group. I would like to list a few of the policies, practices, and projects that are a result of the work of the group.

1. An improved physical education program in the junior and senior high schools
2. A teacher-student guidance and counseling program in the senior high school
3. A one-day workshop on guidance and counseling
4. A safety program conducted by the student council
5. Orientation for sophomores and new students
6. A revision in our report to parents
7. A planned and definite testing program

8. A volunteer teacher plan where capable laymen take over the classroom teaching (without pay) while a teacher attends a professional meeting.

In addition to the policies and projects, many suggestions that were invaluable to the teacher in the classroom were proposed by laymen, teachers, and students.

EVALUATION OF OUR WORK IN CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

Any evaluation of the work of a group of teachers, laymen, and students meeting together once each month for the purpose of discussing problems and suggesting improvements can only be in part. What it has meant to each person participating can only be evaluated by the individual.

There is noticeable evidence that many teachers have developed a more effective classroom organization.

Teachers are more pupil-centered and less subject-matter centered.

There has developed a spirit of cooperation and a feeling of "we-ness" among the laymen, teachers, and students.

The teachers, students, and laymen have a better understanding of each other's problems.

It is an effective means of public relations. Our laymen are enthusiastic and willing participants in studies, committee work, or panel discussion.

More democratic administration, for all levels, has been an important result of the work of the group.

At our first meeting and through all of our meetings, we have used as our guiding principle the assumption that effective improvement in the curriculum will take place largely in the classrooms and that it must be a continuous process.

California Principals Study a Curriculum for the Gifted

HAROLD ALLISON

FOR several years the topic of "The Gifted Child" has been widely discussed throughout the nation. In November 1955, a committee was chosen from the membership of the California Association of Secondary-School Administrators Curriculum Committee to give consideration to the education of the gifted in California.

DEFINITION AND IDENTIFICATION

Some schools in California have considered the "talented" student and the student with superior intelligence in the same category. More often, however, gifted children are considered to be those who make high scores on intelligence tests. Some schools in California have designated the top ten per cent as the group where special provisions for education should be made. At least one large school system has designated the gifted as those in the top one half of one per cent of the population as indicated by intelligence test scores. In some cases the practical definition of gifted has not been based on the qualities possessed by the students who would be classified in this group, but rather on such factors as the size of the school, the district, the number of students in the school or the district that would fall in this group, the finances available for special programs, the availability of faculty members to teach special groups, and the facilities available for special programs.

Most high schools apparently use several ways of identifying gifted students. A survey of 45 selected California high schools was conducted and 33 schools responded. This sampling study provided answers to a number of questions. The responses to one of the questions, "How is the gifted child identified in your school?" were:

32	1. Intelligence tests
29	2. Classroom performance
24	3. Recommendation of teacher or principal
23	4. Standardized tests
24	5. Reading ability

Another question asked of the same group provides some interesting information: "What are the needs of the gifted child in your school?"

30	1. Inspiration, stimulation, and encouragement to excel
23	2. Appropriate guidance in the early career

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| 16 | 3. Ability to overcome apathy and boredom |
| 14 | 4. Opportunity for exploration at an early age |
| 13 | 5. Sympathetic response from peer group |
| 11 | 6. Encouragement to attend college |
| 10 | 7. Adequate social adjustment |
| 9 | 8. Financial aid |

"What are the desirable characteristics of the program provided for the gifted child in your curriculum?"

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|----|---|
| 23 | 1. Extension of experience through special assignments, clubs, laboratories, or library |
| 22 | 2. Enrichment of regular classes |
| 22 | 3. Guidance and counseling |
| 11 | 4. Special classes or special school |
| 9 | 5. Acceleration within the college prep program |
| 6 | 6. Acceleration |
| 6 | 7. Extensive use of community resources |

RESEARCH NEEDED

A survey was conducted by the committee on the gifted child to sample the opinions of educators concerning the areas related to superior students where research is needed most. Here the responses of 93 people were tabulated and ranked. These 93 people were composed of the following: 36 junior and senior high-school teachers (group I); 41 supervisors, counselors, psychologists, and professors (group II); and 16 secondary-school principals and vice-principals (group III). All three groups ranked the following area as the one where research is needed.

Educational Administrative Procedures

A. What are the relative merits (emotional, social, and intellectual effects) of various administrative plans for the gifted such as the following?

- a. Keeping the child with his chronological age group and "enriching the curriculum"
- b. Locating the individual close to his mental-age level in a school class with chronologically older pupils
- c. Retaining the pupil in his chronological age group for some subjects and advancing him in others
- d. Establishing special classes for pupils of high rates of mental growth
- e. Utilizing no special administrative plan for the gifted

B. What preceding or concomitant conditions can be recognized that are correlated with varying results from a given administrative plan such as any of the foregoing or any combination of such plans?

C. Which of these administrative procedures (or others not listed or any combination of procedures) has the best over-all results for the gifted pupil?

Groups II and III ranked the following area as the second most important. Group I ranked it as the third most important.

The Teacher's Distinctive Role in Training the Gifted

A. What effects upon gifted pupils result from various characteristics of his teacher?

B. Are special qualifications necessary in the teacher of the gifted and if so, what are they?

Groups II and III indicated the following item as third in order of importance while Group I ranked it in second place.

Relationship Between Ability and Performance

A. To what extent is there "concealed failure" among gifted pupils; that is, their operating below their appropriate achievement level although not failing by the school's standards?

B. What personality correlates are there to such "concealed failure"?

C. What factors have contributed to such "concealed failure"?

D. What are the over-all effects of various procedures intended to raise the gifted pupils performance to its optimum level?

All these groups considered the following topic as the fourth most important: "The effect (emotional, social and intellectual) upon the gifted pupil of organizing his school work":

A. In terms of greater quantity of work of the same level of difficulty as that which he has been doing?

B. In terms of introducing additional new subject matter (both classroom and extra-mural)?

C. In terms of advancing to higher levels of organization and abstraction in whatever experience is provided for him?

Questions related to the life work of the gifted, their personal relationships, special frustrations, status as a group, and special needs for developing desirable citizenship traits were all considered less important by all three groups. It is rather interesting to note that both groups II and III felt a greater need for research in the field of the teacher's distinctive roll in the training of the gifted than the teachers did themselves.

STATE SUPPORTED STUDY OF PROGRAMS FOR GIFTED

In the 1955 session of the California State Legislature, a bill was introduced to provide funds for a study of programs for the gifted that were in existence with the purpose of identifying the best features and developing a pilot project based on these practices. This bill was not passed. A similar bill was reintroduced in 1957 and was passed by the Legislature. The initial stages of the three-year study, with Dr. Ruth Martinson as director, have already started. The study is being conducted under the supervision of the California State Department of Education. Support of the legislation making this study possible was given by the California Association of Secondary-School Administrators.

DEVELOPING NEW COURSES

Many of the larger school systems in California have had special programs for the gifted for several years. Medium and small sized districts, however, have not generally had programs established for a period of time. While it was recognized that the study of the programs for the gifted pupil as outlined in the new legislation would provide some much needed information for secondary schools in California, it was also recognized that many schools were looking for suggestions they could use in the immediate future. Considerable information concerning different programs was obtained by the Committee, but it was considered desirable to have several principals who were members of the Committee actually develop programs to meet the needs of the gifted in their own schools. The procedures used in developing these programs, as well as the programs themselves, might serve the purpose of acting as a guide to other schools with similar problems. Accordingly, Pittsburg and Barstow High Schools with enrollments between 600 and 700 and Oakdale High School with an enrollment of 1200 were asked to undertake this project. A special *Library Class* was the result of the work at Pittsburg. A *Science Problems and Projects* class was developed at Barstow and an *Independent Studies* course was formulated at Oakdale.

STATE SCHOLARSHIP PROGRAM

The State Legislature also has provided funds for the establishment of the State Scholarship Programs. This is considered as one method of assisting the gifted in continuing their education beyond high school. High-school students take the College Board entrance examinations as one of the qualifications for scholarships. The scholarships are given for the purpose of meeting tuition and fees to a maximum of \$600 per year. The first group of students received awards for the school year 1956-57. During the present year about 1,280 scholarships have been awarded. Slightly more than half of these were new awards and the others were renewals of the awards made the previous year.

ARTICULATION WITH JUNIOR COLLEGES

The acceleration of high-school students leading to early graduation, and thus to early entrance into junior college, college, or university does not seem to have much support at the present time. The possibilities of enrichment and advancement for high-school students through cooperation with junior colleges and colleges while the students are still in high school seems to present greater possibilities. This might be done through junior college courses on the high-school campus, courses on the junior college campus, or correspondence courses with the University of California Extension Division.

If a course should be offered by the junior college on the high-school campus, it might be by either a visiting junior college instructor or by

one of the high-school instructors serving under the supervision of the junior college. Three types of courses that might be offered under this classification would be: (1) a great books course, (2) a psychology-philosophy exploration course, and (3) an English exploratory course as a preparation for college English.

Another of the possibilities, that of allowing high-school students to take junior college courses on the junior college campus while still in high school offers the advantage of individual selection from a variety of courses rather than limitation to a particular course for all. This could be done in either the regular or extended-day program of the junior college. If offered in the regular, the fact of different period schedules for the high school and junior college presents a problem. The third possibility of enrichment through University of California correspondence courses is being done by a number of high schools, but usually not in the case of college-level courses. This plan definitely has possibilities, but has the limitations of these gifted students each taking a different subject and thus not getting the valuable interchange of ideas and experience. In consideration of these possibilities, two problems present themselves that will need solving before this type of program can really move ahead. *First*, there are some colleges that will not grant credit for these college courses if taken before high-school graduation, And *second*, there is the problem of accounting for attendance on any combination high-school-junior-college program.

Responses were obtained from the junior colleges in California to determine what they were doing for gifted high-school students. Approximately half of the 52 schools are permitting capable high-school students to enroll in junior college courses of one type or other. Eleven other junior colleges that have no such plan would be in favor of trying this. Two schools are opposed to the plan and the remainder did not express an opinion.

Some students of history have indicated that the strong interest in the education of the gifted is not a new topic, but rather one which appears from time to time. There is evidence, however, to indicate that the research and experimentation now in progress will provide knowledge which should allow us to do a better job. Even so, most of us know how to do a better job than we are presently doing.

The State Association Provides Leadership

DONALD L. SIMON

AMONG his many areas of responsibility, the principal usually feels the greatest need for help with curriculum problems. Where can he look for leadership, guidance, and encouragement? His superintendent is likely to be involved in problems concerning the budget, plant facilities, public relations, and staff. Only in larger cities will the principal have the assistance of a supervisory organization or of a local principals' group. His own teaching staff will look to *him* for leadership in the curriculum field. There is more than an even chance that he will be located in a state with a state department of public instruction inadequately staffed and chiefly concerned with statistical and inspectoral matters. Fortunately, a growing number of principals can look to their state principals' associations for leadership in curriculum revision and improvement.

Becoming aware that principals were looking for leadership in the curriculum area, the Indiana Association of Secondary-School Principals about seven years ago assigned this responsibility to its curriculum committee. This committee is composed of fifteen members. Two principals are elected from each of five districts which correspond to the subdivisions of the state established by the Indiana High-School Athletic Association. Each principal serves a term of five years and is not eligible to succeed himself. Terms of office are arranged so that only two members retire each year. These ten principals represent schools of various sizes and types of organization. Four members of the committee are appointed from the four state institutions of higher learning. At the present time one of these four is a principal of a laboratory school, a second is a director of student teaching, a third is a specialist in vocational education, and a fourth is chairman of the state committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. One member of the committee represents the State Department of Public Instruction. The committee annually elects its own chairman.

The plan of action has involved (1) giving principals, teachers, and others opportunities through conferences to discuss their instructional problems, exchange viewpoints, and relate practices and (2) disseminating through publications reports on promising programs in curriculum revision and experimentation. Over the years several state-wide conferences and numerous regional conferences have been held involving large numbers of people. A few printed publications and mimeographed newsletters have been prepared and distributed widely throughout the

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state. In the paragraphs to follow, these conferences and publications will be treated in some detail.

STATE-WIDE CONFERENCES

The practice has been to hold a curriculum conference early in the fall at one of the centrally located state parks. Attendance has usually been limited to about eighty participants. In issuing invitations an attempt has been made to have all sections of the state represented, partially to insure having principals present who would in turn set up regional conferences. The committee in charge has provided for a rotation of principals in attendance by dropping one half or more of the group each year so that other principals might have the experience of participation. In making up lists of principals to be invited, the committee has tried to have wide representation by taking into consideration age, length of experience in administration, size of school, type of administrative unit, and other factors of this nature. A number of principals usually write to the committee asking to be included and such requests have been honored when possible. There are always a few superintendents, college professors, and teachers in attendance, the number depending upon their interest in a particular program.

The conferences usually have covered a two-day period in mid-week, starting with an afternoon session and ending at the close of the session on the next afternoon. The committees in charge have selected for each conference a major topic for study and have invited a specialist in the field to serve as a keynote speaker and consultant. Ample time has always been allowed for participants to divide into small groups to discuss the main topic and to consider other problems of common interest. Participants can usually be divided into four or five groups with each group giving special consideration to a problem of immediate interest to those present. At times these smaller groups have made summary reports to the whole conference. Of great value at such conferences are the opportunities school people have of discussing informally at meal time, in the general lounge after each session, or within the confines of their rooms the numerous problems with which they are confronted from day to day in their own schools.

Among the many topics discussed, only problems of major concern will be mentioned here. A program of common learnings along with subject requirements for high-school graduation has been given much attention. With the new interest now in science and mathematics such topics must continue to receive high priority. Citizenship education has been recognized as an area in which leadership is needed. One conference was devoted almost exclusively to the problems of the various curriculum areas with recognized teachers in each field as participants. More recently much attention has been given to the education of talented youth. This problem was deemed of sufficient importance as to warrant a special conference in the spring of 1956 in connection with the

annual meeting of the Indiana Association of Secondary-School Principals. At this conference specialists in reading, mathematics, and science were present to assist in the discussion of programs for talented youth in these areas.

REGIONAL CONFERENCES

Before the close of a state conference, preliminary plans have been made for holding regional conferences either during the fall or spring months. The procedure has been to divide the state into twelve or fifteen regions, each having about six or eight counties. The participants from a given region in attendance at the state conference have served as a steering committee to set up a regional conference. They have been free to invite others within the region to serve during the planning stage. The regional meeting is usually held in a centrally located school, preferably one in which a dinner meeting can be scheduled. The most common practice has been to begin a session in middle or late afternoon and conclude it with a dinner meeting. Occasionally a regional planning committee has decided to have a one-day conference with morning and afternoon sessions. Attendance records prove that teachers in general and principals in smaller schools will participate in much larger numbers in the afternoon and evening combination. Records indicate that in one year over one half of the secondary-school principals of the state attended these regional conferences. In more recent years, teachers have been well represented and have actively participated in the programs.

Copies of regional programs submitted to the curriculum committee indicate that the conferences usually open with a general assembly during which time major problems to be discussed are identified. The person in charge of this period may be a representative of the curriculum committee or a college specialist in the area of secondary education. Members of the conference are invited to present the problems on which they want help. As a rule, the problem or problems of major concern receiving attention at the state conference are included as topics for group discussion. The participants then divide into small groups according to major interests. Following the dinner meeting, a representative of each group will be called on to present a summary of the group discussion. This may be followed with a general discussion led by the member of the curriculum committee or college representative who was in charge of the opening period. He will close the conference with a brief summary statement having an inspirational flavor.

In the way of illustration, an extract from a report of one regional conference is presented here. To open this conference, the representative of the curriculum committee (the director of student teaching) spoke briefly on "Curriculum Headaches in Your School" and then asked for an enumeration of the "headaches" with the following results:

1. Shall we have a citizenship course for freshmen?
2. The problem of widespread inability to read

3. The problem of mid-year students, failures, transfers, accelerated students
4. The student who lacks interest in school
5. The slow learner; the gifted student
6. Subject matter vs. behavior and character teaching
7. Grading systems
8. Are we neglecting the fundamentals?
9. How to interest parents in the curriculum?
10. Problems in student grouping
11. Balance of electives vs. required subjects.

The foregoing problems were combined into three divisions for the purpose of group discussion. The first discussion group was composed of participants selecting items 1, 3, 6, and 11; the second group—items 2, 5, 8, and 10; and the third group—items 4, 7, and 9.

PUBLICATIONS

Periodically the curriculum committee has been authorized by the Indiana Association of Secondary-School Principals to publish summary reports of its activities and accounts of "promising practices" underway in various secondary schools of the state. To stimulate greater interest in attendance at conferences, and particularly in those held in the various regions, a printed bulletin was issued soon after the program was inaugurated.¹ In the concluding section of this bulletin, the curriculum committee took a "look into the future," outlining steps to be taken toward curriculum improvement and expressing a hope that out of all this activity would come "a wholehearted interest on the part of all secondary people and their public in seeing that boys and girls receive a meaningful education."

The most ambitious project undertaken by the curriculum committee was the preparation of a 98-page report on "promising curriculum practices" in the secondary schools of the state and issued as a *Bulletin* of the School of Education, Indiana University.² Through conference discussions, schools engaged in curriculum study and improvement were identified and asked to submit descriptions of their projects. The responses to these requests were very gratifying. The published report covers "promising practices" in various subject areas and "innovations" in the conduct of student activities of educational significance. Interesting projects were reported in guidance, social studies, and language arts. A number of programs were described in health and physical education, homemaking, mathematics, and science, as well as in such activities as assemblies, hosteling, school government, and tours. Noticeably lacking were accounts of curriculum revision in agriculture, art, business

¹ Indiana Association of Secondary-School Principals—Editors: Carl G. F. Franzen, M. Curtis Howd, and Donald L. Simon. *Indiana Principals Look Ahead—Curriculum Improvement in Secondary Schools*. Bloomington: Bloomington High School Press. 1952.

² Indiana Association of Secondary-School Principals—Editors: Carl G. F. Franzen, Arthur Hoppe, and Donald L. Simon. *Promising Curriculum Practices in Secondary Schools in Indiana*. Bloomington: Indiana University Bookstore. 1954.

education, foreign language, industrial arts, and music. School people studying the publication were invited to examine their own potentialities in view of the descriptions and to correspond with or pay a visit to schools carrying on "promising practices."

Since the publication of the *Bulletin*, newsletters have served to inform the principals and their associates about major activities of the curriculum committee and to give reports of curriculum revisions and new practices underway in the schools. One newsletter was devoted to a progress report on products classified under the heading of "Citizenship Education." Through promotion by the Indiana Association of Secondary-School Principals and with the help of a faculty member of one of the state teachers colleges, serving as a state consultant, instructional materials prepared by the Citizenship Education Project (CEP) have been widely used in Indiana junior and senior high schools. Recently a newsletter was distributed covering the "Education of Talented Youth." It dealt chiefly with "What Schools Are Doing" and gave some characteristics of a good school program in this area. The current interest in science and mathematics instruction has made this report of timely interest.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

How much help has all of this activity been to the secondary-school principal? Widespread interest in the conferences, as evidenced by attendance records, gives some indication of its value to principals and teachers. A paragraph from a report of one of the regional conferences is presented here as a representative statement of their worth:

The group failed to solve any problems, but felt the time spent "kicking" these problems around and trading "shop" was very valuable to them and wished to go on record as expressing their thanks to the chairman and others who made this conference possible. It was the unanimous feeling that more conferences of this type would ultimately lead to the solution of many problems which confront the secondary-school principal.

The dissemination of information through publications about schools that are already doing good things in the way of experimentation and exploration will surely stimulate curriculum improvement in schools throughout the state. Principals have expressed in many ways their appreciation of this service on the part of the state association functioning through its curriculum committee.

The Indiana Association of Secondary-School Principals is interested in increasing its services to the principals and teachers in the secondary schools of the state. As a step in this direction, an amendment to the Constitution, authorizing the appointment of a field representative, was presented at the fall meeting (1957). Final action was taken on this amendment at the spring meeting (1958). One of the state institutions of higher learning is to be asked to assign a faculty member to serve as

the representative on a part-time arrangement. It is stated in the proposed amendment that the "Filed Representative shall be responsible to the Executive Committee for furthering the purposes of this organization, directing status studies, and developing needed research." Thus, it is very likely that the principal will have further opportunities to look to his state association for help with his problems.

Contributions of a State Curriculum Commission

B. ROY DANIEL

SERVICES of schools originate and function through the work of good classroom teachers who are given inspirational leadership by good administrators. No school or school system, with or without excellent teachers, will likely undertake evaluation and improvement tasks unless the superintendent and the principal assume the responsibility of initiating and encouraging such action. Believing in this principle and realizing the need for a critical examination of the high schools to discover areas of strengths and weaknesses, the officers of the Oklahoma Secondary-School Principals Association set up means whereby the Oklahoma principals in the spring of 1952 organized an incorporated commission for curriculum studies under the name of the Oklahoma Secondary-School Curriculum Improvement Commission.

The Commission operated under the careful supervision of competent principals with the assistance of the leaders in the Instruction Division from the State Department of Education and of capable and interested consultants from the universities and state colleges. High schools were encouraged to undertake studies which fit their particular needs and to follow up with action programs. The Commission served as the clearing house for all operations in which assistance was requested. Regional and state work conferences and reporting sessions were held, a publication called *Ventures in Education* was published to report promising practices of schools, a basic *Guide for the Improvement of the Curriculum in Oklahoma Secondary Schools* was published, and the co-ordination of efforts was accomplished by the establishment of a central office for the executive secretary in the Oklahoma Education Association building in Oklahoma City. State schools, local boards of education, and the State Department of Education gave assistance to the Oklahoma Secondary-School Principals Association in continuing the work of the Commission. Oklahoma A & M College released Dr. Raymond J. Young on a part-time basis to work as the Executive Secretary.

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PROJECTS CARRIED ON

Accomplishments of the schools working through and with the Commission included many studies in which principals and teachers learned how to work together. Some of the projects are listed here.

1. Articulation between elementary school and junior high school, between junior high school and senior high school, and between high school and college
2. The home room
3. Counseling
4. Evaluation and improvement of subject areas such as reading, the language arts, the social studies, etc.
5. Holding power study
6. Follow-up study of high-school graduates
7. Youth needs
8. Application in part or the whole of the *Evaluative Criteria*
9. Participation in the Citizenship Education Project
10. Study of extraclass participation by pupils
11. Community study
12. Study of incidental expenses involved in school attendance and in participation in school life
13. Uses of television in instruction

The work of the Commission attracted favorable attention and support from superintendents, elementary-school principals, supervisors, college instructors, and classroom teachers to such an extent that it seemed desirable to extend the services of the Commission to all levels of public schools, kindergarten through college. Since many of the problems undertaken involved the other levels in some respect, the secondary-school principals suggested the formation of a new commission which would devote its efforts to all levels of the educational process. In September 1955, the Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission came into being under the sponsorship of the Oklahoma Secondary-School Principals Association, the Oklahoma Elementary-School Administrators Association, the Oklahoma Association of School Administrators, and the Oklahoma Department of Classroom Teachers. The State Department of Education has been a definite part of the Commission by its full support and assistance and by the furnishing of the State Director of Curriculum Education as the executive secretary of the Commission. State colleges and universities are represented through consultants who are members of the Commission. The Oklahoma Secondary-School Curriculum Commission dissolved, and its members became the more prominent leaders in the new organization.

PURPOSES OF THE COMMISSION

The eight simple expressions stated below are the purposes of the Commission which exists only to provide the best possible opportunities to the school children in Oklahoma.

1. Serve as the directing and coordinating committee for Oklahoma curriculum studies.
2. Promote curriculum improvements in the schools.

3. Enlist and encourage all Oklahoma schools to participate in a total state program of curriculum improvement.

4. Enlist the support and participation of all agencies interested in curriculum improvement.

5. Promote meetings, conferences, workshops, *etc.*, designed to bring about curriculum improvement in Oklahoma schools.

6. Serve as a clearinghouse for materials and resources for curriculum improvement.

7. Inform schools which are not participants about what is being done currently in curriculum improvement.

8. Make certain that there is a clear understanding about attempts or efforts being made toward curriculum improvement.

Two of the immediate tasks before the newly formed Commission were the making of an analysis of strengths and weaknesses in the school program and some means of financing the analysis. Fortunately another new organization, the Oklahoma Frontiers of Science Foundation, dedicated to the encouragement of science education and scientific accomplishments in Oklahoma, had just been formed. An arrangement was made with the Frontiers of Science Foundation that the Foundation would pay the administrative cost of a testing program for high-school pupils in return for the names of boys and girls who were located by the tests as superior in areas of science and mathematics. After results of the tests were obtained, the Foundation sent letters of encouragement to about 7,000 gifted youth to continue preparation in scientific fields.

The *Iowa Tests of Educational Development* were administered to 66,870 pupils in 401 high schools. Other schools had given the tests as a part of their regular testing programs. The Commission sponsored area and state conferences for principals and teachers to assist them in the interpretation and uses of the tests. A summer workshop was held at the University of Oklahoma in 1956 for the purposes of training leaders, of helping principals and teachers develop techniques of working together, and of discovering ways to use effectively the results of the *ITED* tests. The Curriculum Improvement Commission undertook to stimulate all schools through letters and offers of consultant help in making full use of test results. Many classroom teachers made reports about improved methods of instruction and reorganization of materials for better services to pupils having varied needs. Counselors, administrators, and home-room teachers found many opportunities to use the test results in various administrative and guidance practices. Since these tests are primarily power tests, they became more meaningful and useful as the results were used in conjunction with other data about the pupils who were tested. The Oklahoma Education Association devoted a sizeable part of the fall (1956) one-day workshops in all OEA districts to discussions about the *ITED* tests, their meanings, and the general improvement of the curriculum. Commission members were used in leadership roles in each of the districts as well as the leadership conference which preceded the district meetings.

The testing program definitely indicated a need in Oklahoma for a critical study with relation to quantitative thinking. The Commission, in cooperation with the Frontiers of Science Foundation, Oklahoma University, and Oklahoma State University, invited to a discussion session a selected group of elementary-school and secondary-school mathematics teachers, mathematics supervisors, officers of the Oklahoma Council of Teachers of Mathematics, superintendents, principals, persons from the departments of mathematics in the colleges and universities, persons from the teacher training departments of the colleges, and persons from the State Department of Education. This selected group of about 60 persons met at the University of Oklahoma on February 1-2, 1957, with Dr. John Mayor, Director of the AAAS Program, and Dr. Henry Van Engen of Iowa State Teachers College as consultants. There followed unified interest in the need for a mathematics study and revision to the extent that the Commission was encouraged to support and sponsor action programs by mathematics teachers. A workshop committee from the Mathematics Council and the Department of Mathematics Teacher Education proposed an action program for mathematics which has been supported with very little change by the Commission. Again the Frontiers of Science Foundation gave financial support to a Commission sponsored summer workshop at Oklahoma State University in which Oklahoma State University, Oklahoma University, and the State Department of Education were co-sponsors. The workshop produced the first of a series of pamphlets which were proposed as teacher guides in improving mathematics instruction and bringing it up to modern times. This *Improvement of the Teaching of Mathematics* presents the over-all program, K-12. It will serve as a guide to the understanding and use of later publications which are being planned for detailed course descriptions.

The Commission has worked closely with other areas of the curriculum through the teachers in those areas. Language arts teachers have been encouraged to produce a Teaching Guide for Language Arts which is now being used in its first revision. The State Department of Education produced a teachers' manual, *Alcohol and Narcotics Education*, with some help and stimulation from the Commission. A committee is now at work on problems related to health, physical education, and safety.

Two evaluation manuals have been completed by and with the assistance of the Commission. Both the *Evaluation Manual for Elementary Schools* and the *Scale for Evaluating a Junior High School* have found wide use and acceptance by the schools over the state. The manuals are this year in the process of revision for greater usefulness.

The work of the Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission is kept moving chiefly through the sponsorship by the Secondary-School Principals Association and the leadership given by its secondary-school principals who are members or who have recently been principals.

Analyzing Student Achievement in 10th Grade English

JOHN M. SEXTON

THE curriculum at Northeast High School changes nature and direction at the tenth-grade level in much the same way and to the same extent that is true in other senior high schools in the country. Thus, grade ten constitutes a very logical grade level at which to appraise the outcomes of language arts instruction through the junior high-school level. It was our particular feeling that the testing program now being used was not beneficial to us in as broad a scope as we wished.

With the help of our Pinellas County Measurement and Evaluation Center, we decided on what we wanted the tests to do.

1. To check on the effectiveness of intelligence test result and previous achievement as the basis for grouping, whether by class or within a class.

2. To discover students who need special help in certain areas of English instruction; e.g., special disabilities in reading, spelling, and the like.

3. To provide, by item analysis, some check on the effectiveness of previous instruction and reveal areas of weakness needing more attention and, possibly, permanent curriculum modification or acceleration.

4. To provide the objective data for a systematic in-service training program on the use of test results to improve instruction.

Once our objectives were well in mind, the problem was to select an appropriate battery of tests for the purpose. The comprehensive nature of the proposed program limited the selection to two series of tests; namely, the *Cooperative English Tests* and the *Evaluation and Adjustment Series*. Since the *Cooperative Tests* had been used widely in the country and are being used at the state level in the twelfth-grade University Placement Examination, it was decided to use the *Evaluation and Adjustment Series*. The tests from this series and the sub-test areas covered by each test are indicated below:

Kelly-Greene Reading Comprehension Test

1. Ability to comprehend selections of paragraph length
2. Ability to find answers to questions
3. Ability to retain what is read
4. Estimate of rate reading

Greene-Stapp Language Abilities Test

1. Capitalization
2. Spelling
3. Punctuation
4. Sentence structure
5. Applied grammar, and usage and applied grammar

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Durost-Center Word Mastery Test

1. General Vocabulary—A measure of general vocabulary level based upon a carefully selected functional vocabulary list
2. Use of Context—A measure of the extent to which the student is able to learn the meanings of unknown words by seeing them in typical context situations

Spitzer Study Skills Test

1. Using the dictionary
2. Using the index
3. Understanding graphs, maps, and tables
4. Knowledge of sources of information
5. Organization of facts in note-taking (Not included in this survey)

One of the major advantages of the *Evaluation and Adjustment Series* is the fact that all tests in this series are equated to a single standard score scale, making it possible to make direct comparison of scores from test to test. To facilitate such use of the test results, local norms in the form of stanines based upon the total group tested were provided.

The administration of the tests was preceded by meetings with the classroom teachers to explain the purpose of the program and what it was hoped they would get out of it. Special care was given to the matter of adequate administration in order to insure that the test scoring machine answer sheets would be scorable; i.e., free of stray marks, double marked items, and the like.

Subsequent to the administration of the tests and the summarization of the data, a meeting was held with the English teachers at which time the over-all results were presented and discussed. All test data were returned to the teachers in such a way as to facilitate the plotting of individual profiles. Score distributions were reported with suitable summary statistics. Item analyses were carried out for all tests where this was pertinent. These item analyses, which were done by means of a graphic counter of the IBM machine, provided information on the percentage of students answering each question correctly.

In checking the effectiveness of our homogeneous grouping, we found that the results of this battery of tests bore out the present grouping of English classes. Students who were in superior groups showed generally the best results, with scores ranging downward through the average and low groups. Very few instances were noted wherein a student was not in the class-group range in which he had been previously assigned. When discrepancies were noted, schedule changes were made. During the current year's scheduling, these test results, along with the I.Q., teacher recommendation, and academic standing of the student, were the bases for the homogeneous grouping which has proved most satisfactory. By these methods of setting up instructional groups, we have taken into account not only the measurement of intelligence, but also the measurement of school achievement of each student. We feel that, following this procedure of grouping, the student is able to learn with less frustration and greater freedom from strain in competition with other students of comparative abilities.

Within the class, greater individual help has been given with the available information of each student's weaknesses and strengths. Insight into probable weaknesses of other groups has been invaluable in curriculum change which includes adjustments within class groups and the addition of non-credit honor composition course for college-bound seniors. A definite need has been noted for further instruction in organization and details in writing. The composition course is designed primarily as a course in essay writing rather than a true over-all writing course. Letter writing and similar class work is being covered in the individual English groups.

Results of the test have been utilized within the English classes concerned, in the reading classes, and again this year in grade eleven as the pupils have progressed. Study of individual profiles on the record cards was valuable in making possible the selection of 107 students, or twenty-one per cent, of the sophomore class who could best benefit from instruction in remedial reading. The reading program is set up on the laboratory, or reading center, basis within the school where guided help is supplied by a reading specialist who is a regular member of the teaching staff of the English department. Consideration of the I.Q. of the pupils was an additional factor in the reading group selections. As far as possible, only those students with an I.Q. of 90-105, those whose scores fell in the range of the third stanine, the lower fourth stanine, or the upper second stanine, and those who had a low vocabulary were selected. One class of eight students at the lower end of the fourth stanine made the most significant progress, especially in vocabulary. This seemed to prove the validity of the test as a basis for selection of reading classes.

The language abilities test information was used as one criterion for re-directing, to some extent, the course of study. Results showed us that needless repetition of certain areas could be minimized and our weaknesses remedied by more clearly defining the units of work to be completed at specific levels of progression through grades 10-12. A tentative course of study is now being used for greater ease of definition of the work which will be taught at each grade level and within various groups of the grade levels.

Specifically, the item analyses of the various tests have shown a definite weakness in the study skills section on sources of information. In co-operation with the library staff, an extensive unit of work will be presented to all tenth- and eleventh-year students during the present school term. The same, or a similar, unit will be a requirement for the first marking period of each succeeding tenth-grade class enrollment.

Further use of the item analyses has been made by the principal in his supervisory conferences with individual teachers. The conferences are not used as a check on the teachers, but as a means by which curriculum planning can best be brought about for further use by the teacher.

Test results have further proved helpful to both the guidance personnel and the classroom teacher in planning guidance activities where they can do the most good, whether in the classroom or in the counselor's office. Such results as have been obtained from this testing program put the teacher in a far better position to understand the learning problems and difficulties of the individual students. By the same token, guidance counselors are better able to guide and advise students in making schedule adjustments. A workshop of teachers involved was held during which there was a frank and free interchange of ideas concerning the implications of the test results for grouping, curriculum revision, and individual pupil guidance. An additional workshop was held with all teachers of English in the county and a full explanation made of the tests, its administration, and use that could be made of results.

Results of the administration of the battery of tests herein described have been satisfactory from the standpoint of knowing that, while definite weaknesses and strengths are evident, our sophomore class ranks generally above the national norms for these tests. Because we rank above the norms, however, has not been a reason to become complacent. The feeling of the administration and English staff is that, by knowing our strengths and weaknesses, we can better prepare our students in the areas where a need is obvious. The teachers of the groups during the testing program have expressed a wish that they might have similar information about their present classes. Teachers of the groups this year (junior English classes) have been given the individual profile card of classes as adjustments in scheduling have been made. Results are still being used for individual aids, grouping, current curriculum changes, and projected changes in the offering of the English department.

The Book Column

Professional Books

BURKE, V. M. *Newsletter Writing and Publishing*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1958. 127 pp. \$2.50. A practical guide, it is intended for all persons seeking to improve communication in single institutions, school systems, professional and cultural organizations, and public and private agencies. It is especially designed for editors and staffs who must put out effective local, state, and regional newsletters on slender budgets and often without the assistance of regular office personnel. This book is concerned with establishing newsletters as a distinct medium of communication and with providing guidelines for their production.

The design of the book is cumulative. That is, a new chapter usually introduces a new consideration, but does not necessarily finish it. This is true of both the four chapters on production and the four on writing style, in which several subjects are discussed more than once, each time from a different perspective. The book attempts to give an unfolding, organic view of newsletter work by introducing subjects and building on them in subsequent chapters, rather than categorizing and exhausting each subject within the bounds of a single chapter.

This book has grown out of the ideas and insights of people in a wide variety of professional fields. Cooperating in its development were three departments of the National Education Association—the Department of Elementary School Principals, the National School Public Relations Association, and the Department of Classroom Teachers; many members of the faculties and staffs of Teachers College, Columbia University and of the University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee; and hundreds of newsletter editors and readers all over the country, who contributed ideas through interview and questionnaire and who helped to build the collection of small publications on which the book is partially based.

Claremont College Reading Conference. Claremont, California: Claremont College Reading Yearbook Curriculum Laboratory, Claremont College, Harper Hall. 1958. 193 pp. \$2.50. This book, the 23rd yearbook of the Claremont College Reading Conference, is composed of the following 15 papers presented at the conference: Reading in a Geophysical Age; The Development of International Understanding; Russia: A Problem To Be Solved; Reading as the Earth Writes; Science, a Creative Activity, and Reading; Reading Glaciers and Their Influence on Man's Environment; Spheres of Influence on Man's Environment; Reading Human Behavior; Reading Personalities Through Handwriting Analysis; What About Seeing for Reading in a Scientific Age?; Aural Interpretation: A Basic Approach; The Edge of Mystery; Reading Without Light; The Weightier Matters; and How One School District Is Meeting the Needs of its Rapid Learners in a Geophysical Age.

COHEN, JULIUS; R. A. H. ROBSON; and ALAN BATES. *Parental Authority*. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 30 College Avenue. 1958. 313 pp. \$6. This study and its methodology show a new way

to investigate community and personal attitude toward the law. Using parental authority as a test area, it presents a unique instrument that can be used in future studies to measure the community's moral sense in relation to the law. The method developed by the authors is fully described in the book. Two of the authors of this work are sociologists and one is a professor of law. Using a questionnaire especially designed for this inquiry, they interviewed a sample of the population of an entire state.

The book opens, appropriately, with a discussion of the moral ingredient in the law and the extent to which the moral sense of the community has been used as a norm for lawmaking. The techniques employed are then described, and, following this, the authors move into the areas of agreement and difference between what the community thinks the law should be and what it actually is. These areas are discussed first in terms of the community as a whole and then in terms of many of its socio-economic and religious characteristics. Persons interviewed were asked to give not only their views but also their reasons for holding them, thus permitting the authors to obtain a deeper insight into individual patterns of values.

Among the subjects treated here are parental authority to control the child's property, to determine whether or not the child may have a college education, to determine the religious affiliation of a child, to prevent his marriage by refusing consent, to refuse medical aid when it is recommended, to disinherit the child completely, and many other aspects of the parents' legal relationship to the child. The book then explores possible reasons for differences in the attitudes of members of the community. It closes with a discussion of the legal, political, and social implications of the material.

Counseling Parents of Children with Mental Handicaps. Langhorne, Pennsylvania: The Woods School for Exceptional Children. 1958. 108 pp. One copy free, additional copies \$1 each. This is the Proceedings of the 33rd Spring Conference of The Woods School held in Minneapolis in cooperation with the University of Minnesota. This 1958 Conference represents the coordinated effort of several organizations dealing with these problems. The problems deal with the scope and practice of parental counseling from the time of first knowledge of retardation to the time of using community or residential school facilities. The Conference topic was keyed to a sensitive interpretation of the relationship between parental expectation and the over-all personality development of mentally handicapped children.

ENGLER, DAVID. *How to Raise Your Child's IQ.* New York 10: Criterion Books, Inc., 257 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 153 pp. \$3.50. The days are long since gone, says the author, a teacher in the New York public-school system, when the IQ was considered an unchanging measure of intelligence. He shows not only that a child's IQ test score can fluctuate widely, but also that the psychologists disagree on what intelligence is and how to measure it. Many parents have failed to keep abreast of these developments, and their failure may well have denied many children the kind of education from which they would have benefited most.

For the IQ is a simple statistic, and, in these days of crowded classrooms and teacher shortages, it has become necessary to form classes by "homogeneous grouping"—putting into one class those pupils whose IQ's fall within an arbitrary range. Each class is then taught a curriculum geared to the "intelligence" level of its members.

Thus a single point in a child's score can make the difference between a routine education and the greatly enriched curriculum being taught to classes in the next IQ range. On what the child is taught depends his qualification for college, and the IQ continues to have a dramatic effect upon his opportunities in the armed forces and throughout his career.

The author shows that what the IQ measures is, to a large degree, learned, not innate. And he explains how improving the child's environment improves his performance on the IQ test. Invaluable points can be added to the child's score by familiarizing him with the conditions and the kinds of questions he will meet in taking the test itself. Included are many practice exercises and clear, easy-to-follow instructions on how to use them.

The evidence proves that the IQ can be raised. And any parent has the ability to raise his child's IQ and the responsibility to try. The child has so very much to gain.

HALVERSON, P. M., editor. *Frontiers of Secondary Education III*. Syracuse 10: Syracuse University Press, University Station, Box 87. 1958. 78 pp. \$2.25. The paper-bound books contain papers from the Third Annual Conference on Secondary Education. Papers included are: Contrasts in Education: The Soviet Union *versus* the United States; Education and the Current Crisis; The Behavioral Deviate in the Culture of the Secondary School; Guidance for Individual Freedom and Social Demand; Adolescence and the Creative Urge; At the Frontiers of Foreign-Language Teaching; The Mathematics Revolution: Causes and Directions; and The Teacher's Self-understanding and Self-acceptance.

McQUADE, WALTER. *Schoolhouse*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 272 pp. \$10. Three years ago the Aluminum Company of America, as a public service, brought together a group of architects and engineers and set them to work on the problems involved in putting up schools—the biggest and most important investment most American towns make. The result is *Schoolhouse*, written in clear, fascinating, and frequently amusing prose.

This book enables the layman to deal intelligently with such matters as structure, design, heating, lighting, and other environmental elements, as well as preliminary problems like shopping the bond market. But technical information is only a part of the book which evolved.

This book also has children in it—the real clients for schoolhouses—with an evocative discussion of how they learn best, of differences between children and adults, and of what the buildings children work in should be like. Scattered through these 272 pages are hundreds of photographs—tender, funny, secret, sometimes sad—which could be a book in themselves. Other ingredients in this unusual volume are many cartoons by R. O. Blechman about and not about schools and building; 16 pages in full color, including a sweeping folio of schools across the country, photographed from the air; a 57-page photographic gallery of the continent's best schoolhouses, models for any community; 15 full pages of two-color charts which condense into immediate form a semester of building study. Printed by sheet-fed gravure, bound in blue denim, this book will be treasured by many people for many years.

MORRIS, GLYN. *The High School Principal and Staff Study Youth*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1958. 112 pp. \$1.25. In this book, the author offers specific and practical suggestions concerning the means whereby no student need be lost in the

complex business of universal secondary education. This is not the responsibility of any one staff person; it requires the cooperative efforts of all who work with youth within the framework of the school. This, then, is an appropriate topic and treatment for the present monograph series.

A careful and devoted student of the specifics of guiding youth toward ethical lives based upon understanding of themselves and the world about them, Dr. Morris draws from carefully selected published and unpublished research. His familiarity with the problems of the teacher and the administrator is based upon rich experience in public education. Colleagues testify to his effectiveness as he brings the best that is known about studying and guiding youth to the classrooms and offices of his current responsibility. The reader of this book will acknowledge the author's skill in blending theory and practical experience into a helpful, meaningful text.

To the principal, guidance worker, or classroom teacher who is daily charged with the difficult duty of working with groups of individuals, this monograph will prove a source of significant help. In turn, its study and use will make available to each junior or senior high-school youth a program of education more suitably tailored to him as a growing, vital, and frequently misunderstood individual.

REMMLEIN, M. K. *School and College Teachers' Federal Income Tax Guide*, revised edition. Great Neck, New York: Channel Press, 159 Northern Boulevard. 1959. \$2.50. Principals, administrators, professors of all ranks, educators in public and independent schools—these are the men and women who will benefit most from the author's authoritative and invaluable handbook. Every possible deduction, exemption, credit, and exclusion is carefully listed and explained; the most beneficial way to report non-salary income of every type is demonstrated; special attention is given to the educator's unique problems—deductions for educational expense, for example, or the claiming of refunds for such expenses in past years. Teachers will find equally invaluable the easily-applied information on sick pay, professional activities which may result in deductions, and the graphic demonstrations of how to fill in confusing portions of the tax return form. Publisher's guarantee:—"This Guide must save you many times its purchase price in money saved on taxes and in time spent filling in your return—or you may send the book back to the publisher for full, immediate refund."

SELLEN, THORSTIN, and R. D. LAMBERT, editors. *Highway Safety and Traffic Control*. Philadelphia 4: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3937 Chestnut Street. 1958. (November). 232 pp. Paper, \$2; cloth bound, \$3. This volume contains fifteen articles on the subject, contributed by men who are pre-eminently qualified in their respective fields to discuss the current situation and to appraise the outlook. It is by far the most comprehensive symposium on traffic safety published anywhere to date.

It may be true that for an individual, the saving of one human life may justify almost any amount of effort. Certainly the movement offers much deep personal satisfaction to its devotees. But the modern concept of traffic safety, while acknowledging the validity of these humanitarian considerations, is not content to stop there. To do so would be to limit accident prevention activities to moral preaching. And since most people, Americans and Canadians, at least, seem to hold "good driver" images of themselves, generalized moral appeals and admonitions have little motivation power. It is the "other fellow" who is guilty of wrong doing; all messages automatically are addressed to him.

In addition to this practical consideration, there is another reason for the humanitarian appeal not being enough. If traffic safety becomes an end in itself—the sole object being the prevention of accidents—then logic requires that steps be taken which, although they may result in fewer hazards to life and limb, actually have the effect of restricting traffic itself. The ultimate expression of this point is the view that death and injury in traffic can be eliminated simply by eliminating traffic. While this idea may have a certain philosophical attraction for some, it has very little to do with the world in which we live. The people by their own choice have adopted the motor vehicle as a family unit of transportation, and it has been integrated into the economy. It would be vain, indeed, to dream of turning the clock back.

For many years the safety program was symbolized in the United States by the "Three E's"—education, engineering, and enforcement. The late Sidney J. Williams, who had much to do with its development, likened the program to a three-legged stool. "It can't stand up," he said, "if one of the legs is missing." Each element of the program is essential to the reduction of traffic accidents to their irreducible minimum. All merit the continuous support not only of public agencies and institutions but also, very importantly, of thoughtful, civic-spirited citizens and the many organizations to which they belong.

The authors, like other leading authorities in the field, are basically optimistic about the future. Perhaps one reason is the fact that the same measures they advocate for the reduction of accidents also are, in the main, the steps necessary for increasing the efficiency of traffic itself. That which is done to promote expeditious movement of people and goods over public ways, to increase capacity and reduce costs, also will serve to make that movement safer. This is a happy parallel of social and economic objectives. It offers a very solid reason to hope that the encouraging gains so far recorded in this field can be exceeded during the years ahead.

STANDLEE, L. S., and Y. J. POPHAM. *Preparation and Performance of Teachers*. Bloomington: Division of Research and Field Service, School of Education, Indiana University. 1958. (November). 56 pp. \$1. The preparation and performance of graduates of the teacher-education programs in our various colleges and universities have always been matters of concern to both lay people and professional educators. Through the years both groups have had champions who were quite vocal regarding the various controversies arising from this concern.

A recurrent question regards the quality of preparation and performance of graduates from large universities as contrasted to those from small colleges. In spite of the fact that all graduates of teacher-education programs in a particular state now meet the standard licensing requirements of that state, one still hears statements indicating that the question of equal preparation is a current one. One may hear, for example, that graduates from a large university are better prepared because of wider course offerings, better facilities and faculty, etc. On the other hand, one may hear that the graduates from small colleges are better prepared because of more individual attention, group participation, etc.

Another frequently raised question regards the relative merit of professional courses as contrasted to that of academic courses in preparing teachers. This question is currently a very popular one, as evidenced by the numerous articles appearing in daily newspapers, weekly news magazines, educational journals, etc. The critics of professional education claim that teachers must take so many

professional education (pedagogy) courses that there is no room left for subject-matter preparation. In short, the public school teacher is being taught how to teach to the exclusion of being taught more in his subject field.

The defenders of professional education claim that the teaching of children and young adolescents is a profession and requires professional training. Academic competency is necessary but not sufficient. The public school teacher must have the professional skills that are taught in the professional courses—psychology, methods, practice teaching, etc. The present licensing requirements are necessary to guarantee that teachers will have these skills, without which the teacher might have a deleterious effect upon pupils.

The present investigation was undertaken in order to supply evidence needed to determine whether there is a relationship between (1) teacher preparation and size and type of graduating institution; (2) teacher performance and size and type of institution; and (3) teacher preparation and teacher performance.

STOOPS, EMERY, and G. L. WAHLQUIST. *Principles and Practices in Guidance*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 W. 42nd Street. 1958. 377 pp. \$5.50. Three basic ideas and considerations determined the selection and arrangement of the materials. The first of these basic ideas presents guidance as a continuous process. Elementary teachers spend considerable time advising and counseling while teaching pupils to read, spell, and add. High-school teachers find an increasing demand for assistance in educational, vocational, and personal matters. Colleges and industry now see the need for offering guidance service to our older youth and adults. While much guidance can and must be done by the classroom teacher, some guidance teachers with special training must be available to help students.

The second idea pertains to basic steps in the guidance process. Most textbooks list aims and objectives or discuss principles in the opening chapters of the book. In many situations it has been observed that principles grow out of practice rather than practice developing from principles. To follow a natural rather than a "logical" sequence, the five basic steps in the guidance process are presented first. They are: getting information about the individual; getting information about environmental opportunities; putting this information together, or counseling; helping the student to find his place; and determining results, or the follow-up.

Following the presentation of the five basic steps, general principles become apparent. This book then considers the essentials of a good guidance program and the personnel necessary to make it effective. The four final chapters of the text deal with the budget, public relations, circulation of guidance information, and evaluation of the guidance program.

The third idea which guided the development of this manuscript resulted from the fact that the authors found most beginning classes in guidance contained people with a wide variety of backgrounds and needs. Some materials are presented for the graduate student who wants a comprehensive coverage of both principles and practices. Other materials are presented to assist administrators who are setting up or improving guidance programs in a school. A complete coverage of elementary-school guidance work was not attempted, but there is enough to assist the elementary teacher in a beginning guidance course. Considerable care was taken in selecting the case studies so that they may be helpful to the counselors, the attendance workers, and other teachers who are attempting to know and understand their students.

STRANG, RUTH, ETHLYNE PHELPS, and DOROTHY WITHROW, editors. *Gateways to Readable Books*. New York 52: The H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue. 1958. 181 pp. \$3. This third edition of this bibliography includes more than 1,000 easy-to-read titles in many fields of interest to adolescent boys and girls. This bibliography is intended primarily for pupils whose reading ability falls below the level expected of them in their high-school grade. Eighty per cent of the titles are new entries in this third edition. As in previous editions, all titles are graded according to reading difficulty.

The ten sections of the book include: Reading Tests and Workbooks; Books in Series; Magazines and Newspapers; Simplified Dictionaries; Directory of Publishers; Index to Grade Level of Reading Difficulty; Author and Title Indexes.

The twenty-seven categories under which the books are listed include: Adventure, Animal Life and Adventure, Aviation, Careers, Family and Community Life, Folk Tales and Myths, Health and Safety, Hobbies—Making and Doing Things, Humor, Indians and Cowboys, Music and Art, Mystery Stories, People Here and Abroad, Personality and How To Be Popular, Science, Science Fiction, Sports and World Problems.

WITTICH, W. A., and G. H. HALSTED, editors. *Educators Guide to Free Tapes, Scripts, and Transcriptions*, fifth annual edition. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1959. 242 pp. \$5.75. This edition is completely new and is devoted exclusively to free tapes, free scripts, and free transcriptions. It is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of audio aids and scripts—compiled information on these free educational enrichment audio and script materials within the covers of a single book.

This fifth edition lists, classifies, and provides information on sources, availability, and contents of 80 free tapes, 306 free scripts, and 117 free transcriptions—a total of 503 valuable materials. Of these, 98 are new starred (*) titles. Additionally, it gives the busy, alert educator and librarian information on the nature, purposes, and use of these materials not to be found in any other single source. In addition, there is a significant article on contributions of free audio materials to education.

This guide is designed as a companion publication to other widely used services; namely, *Educators Guide to Free Films* and *Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms*. For educational as well as financial reason, the many fine audio, visual, and other materials available from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered and continue to render a valuable contribution to the curriculum.

This growing family of publications provides a wealth of supplementary audio and visual materials at a minimum cost. They bring to the boys and girls of our nation and to teachers and librarians a vast range of education materials, rich in value. They provide many experiences not otherwise available.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

ASIMOV, ISAAC. *The World of Nitrogen*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman Ltd., 404 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 160 pp. \$2.75. Many of the substances that have revolutionized our way of living do not exist in nature, but were created by the organic chemist: plastics, synthetic fabrics, dye-

stuffs. Other substances have been carefully isolated from nature, then duplicated in the test tube: antibiotics, vitamins, alkaloids.

Despite its vital importance, the subject of organic chemistry is generally reserved for college texts because of its presumed difficulty. But even chemical formulas can be made thoroughly clear, the author proves. The author, whose *Building Blocks of the Universe* won the Edison Foundation Award for the best science book for youth published in 1957, is well known for his talent of imparting his own professional knowledge through remarkably clear and highly readable prose. In this book, the author covers the entire range of nitrogen-containing organics, from explosives to vitamins and from dyes to antibiotics. A previous book by the author, *The World of Carbon*, describes and discusses the wide field of organics not containing nitrogen, from petroleum to paint and from anaesthetics to anti-freeze.

BOARDMAN, F. W., JR. *Roads*. New York 3: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 143 pp. \$3.50. Here are descriptions of the machines and materials used to build roads—the Portland cement, asphalt and tar of today; the steam rollers and bulldozers which have replaced the slow, hand processes of the past. And here are roads of all parts of the world: the great road network that carried the power of Rome throughout Europe; the modern parkways and thruways of America, speeding traffic along with overpasses and cloverleafs and carrying sightseers from the nation's capital to the Rocky Mountains.

BRANDES, L. G. *Geometry Can Be Fun*. Portland, Maine: J. Weston Walch, Box 1075. 1950. This book has been written with two types of students in mind. It is directed to the average student to whom geometry is often pointless and dull. There are dozens of puzzles, stories, projects, etc. pointed at just such a student. These aim to show him that geometry is practical and can be exciting. With the help of this book, this average student can "take fire" and develop a real interest in the course. It is also directed to the talented student, who needs a greater challenge than can be presented by the ordinary textbook. There are many problems, constructions, etc. that will tax the full capabilities of such a student. This book is not a regular classroom textbook. Rather, it is a supplementary book, full of oddities and interesting sidelights on geometry. It can be used effectively with just one copy in the hands of the geometry teacher. More effective, however, is to supply a whole class with copies. Let them talk about these striking, interest arousing mathematical applications in class. Let them take the books home to confound brothers and sisters, fathers and mothers. Soon there will be a room full of converts to geometry!

The book is offset printed, $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ in., heavy paper bound. There are two editions. *Geometry Can Be Fun, Student Edition*. (229 pages, same as the Teacher Edition, but without answers and teacher material. Net school price, \$2.00 per copy.) One teacher edition book is free with orders for 10 or more of Student Edition. *Geometry Can Be Fun, Teacher Edition*. (250 pages, including answers and other teacher material. Net school price, \$2.50 per copy.)

CATTON, BRUCE. *A Stillness at Appomattox*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 509 pp. 50¢. This is a pocket edition, complete, of the original hardbound book, winner of the Pulitzer Prize in history and the national book award. Here is the story of the last desperate year of the Civil War, when the shadow of death lay all across America. In

the bloody battles ahead, there would be little glory in victory and no pity in defeat.

Cosmopolitan World Atlas. Chicago 80: Rand McNally and Company, P. O. Box 7600. 1958. 408 pp. (11" x 14"). \$13.95. This atlas is considered by many people, the finest one can buy because of its more than 400 pages of beautiful maps, comprehensive index, and important world information. Colorful, new relief maps, photographs, facts, and tables are just a few of the many exclusive, new features that highlight this comprehensive atlas—the culmination of over 100 years of experience.

Up-to-date and comprehensive coverage of the entire world is given by the 155 pages of maps in this outstanding volume. Each map reflects the high standards of accuracy, legibility, and beauty of coloring that are expected from Rand McNally.

An exclusive feature of the atlas is a 16-page section of full-color, topographic maps of all continents, and the United States and Canada, that show the face of the earth in graphic, understandable relief. On pages facing them, there are colorful, diagrammatic maps showing vegetation, rainfall and temperature, population, and physical-political information.

Over 10,000 changes have been made in the population figures given for the cities listed in the 173-page index, including an impressive number of changes in foreign population entries. A new table shows comparative population figures for all metropolitan centers in the United States. Another new table lists principal world cities of 400,000 population and over.

An outstanding new feature of this volume is a 12-page section covering principal places of interest in America with many excellent photographs of our scenic country. The latest information on steamship, railroad, and airline distances is given in black and white maps, and in tables. Here is truly a wealth of information about our changing world, including the different forms of government, predominant languages and religions, climatic and economic information, and other important, interesting facts. Geographical and historical facts about America, its national parks, and specific state information, are all in this comprehensive world atlas.

"Where is it?" "How far is it?" "How big is it?"—such questions arise daily in connection with news reports, business problems, or pleasure reading. The atlas gives you the answers to literally thousands of such questions, quickly and accurately.

Current events unfold in an easy pattern when you use the atlas to help interpret the news. Emphasizing vital regional areas rather than the traditional national divisions, these maps are especially designed to give the busy reader the background he needs for an understanding of complicated world problems.

A carefully planned system of relative map scales in the world map section makes it easy to compare one region with another without losing sight of its true proportion—gives you an accurate perspective on the world.

One easy-to-use, comprehensive, universal index forms the key to the atlas. Every name appearing on every map is listed with the location, index key, and page number, as well as population figures in the case of cities.

Detailed inset maps of important metropolitan areas—the nerve centers of contemporary civilization—are featured on nearly every map. Extremely helpful in locating suburban areas, these insets occur in greater profusion than in any other American atlas. Small orientation maps in the upper corner of every page show the map on that page in relation to surrounding areas.

DAVIS, HASSOLDT. *Captain Bill and his Jungle Magic*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1958. 157 pp. \$2.95. Captain Bill and his beloved steed Elila clomped along the sleety Post Road to Connecticut, where Captain Bill was finally going to see his young relatives, Trux and Lucy. After 53 years away from home as an explorer, Captain Bill was eager to tell them of his adventures around the world. Most especially, he wanted to tell them how to perform some of the magic tricks that had got him out of some of the darnedest predicaments a tough old explorer ever got into.

DORNBERGER, WALTER. V-2. New York 3: Ballantine Books, 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 237 pp. 50¢. The inside story of Hitler's "secret weapon" that almost changed the course of history.

DOYLE, A. C., SIR. *Famous Tales of Sherlock Holmes*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 352 pp. \$3.50. If one were asked to name the most widely known and most popular character in the whole world of books, the choice would almost certainly fall on Sherlock Holmes. Ever since his first appearance in 1887, his name has cast a magic spell over countless readers throughout the world. Today that enchantment is as strong as ever; one has only to open the first page of any Sherlock Holmes volume to be transported at once to a land of gas lamps and hansom cabs, to hear the ominous footsteps of the visitor to 221 B Baker Street, followed by Holmes' cry, "Come, Watson, come. The game is afoot!"

This carefully selected group of Sherlock Holmes stories includes *A Study in Scarlet*, in which Sherlock Holmes first appeared; *A Scandal in Bohemia*; *The Red-Headed League*; *The Sign of the Four*; and *The Boscombe Valley Mystery*. William C. Weber has written an introduction to the collection and there are sixteen pages of illustrations.

DUVOISIN, ROGER. *Petunia, Beware!* New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 36 pp. \$2.95. Petunia was sometimes a very silly goose. She was never satisfied with her own food because her friends' food looked so much better, and the grass outside the farm yard looked ever so much tastier and greener. At last Petunia could stand it no longer; she went to eat the greener, tastier grass on the far meadows and hills. Both of her eyes were so filled with pictures of eating and food that she falls headlong into trouble and almost finishes as a tasty meal herself.

GALBRAITH, J. K. *The Affluent Society*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1958. 382 pp. \$5. In this important book, a literate and versatile economist closely scrutinizes current ideas and attitudes in economics. He shows that they were worked out for a world far different from our own. This was a world of bleak poverty and one in which, except for a favored few, any other condition was unimaginable. Professor Galbraith shows how imperfectly and reluctantly the ideas appropriate to this world have been modified for application to the very different world—the affluent society—in which we live.

The consequences are great. We are committed by obsolescent thought to a tense and humorless pursuit of goods and to a fantastic and potentially dangerous effort to manufacture wants as rapidly as we make goods. We are impelled to invest too much in things and not enough in people. We threaten the stability and integrity of our society—what the author calls the social balance—by producing too much of some things and not enough of others. We are less happy than we might be and we jeopardize our safety.

This book was completed in the same month that the first Sputniks took to space. Anyone who is concerned as to why we failed in this scientific race—and could fail again—will find the deeper explanation here. More important, he will see how we can make more rational use of our great resources and, in so doing, better insure our safety and our happiness.

This book makes no effort to avoid controversy. The author notes that it will strike "an uncouth note in the world of positive thinking." A reader has described it as a "practiced effort in the ripping open of stuffed shirts." But while the author uses criticism, irony, ridicule—and humor—to make his case, this is not an exercise in polemics. It is a carefully reasoned economic treatise. It is meant for people who want to understand American and Western society.

GOLENPAUL, DAN, editor. *Information Please Almanac*, 1959. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 960 pp. Paper edition, \$1.25; cloth edition, \$2.50. This book, the thirteenth annual edition, provides timely, interesting, and important reading material. It, as usual, is a storehouse of information on subjects that are related to daily news headlines and active personal and social interests. Herein are the latest facts on 82 countries of the world, the latest information from space experts, from the music expert, advice on health, etc. All the articles make good and informative reading. Here is a modern almanac with important articles for reading as well as a wealth of reference material for home, office, and school, including important facts about sports, government, history, education, economics, parliamentary procedure, income tax, social security, and many other areas of interest.

HEUER, KENNETH. *An Adventure in Astronomy*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1958. 127 pp. \$3.50. The book provides an exciting experience in astronomy for the reader, with its description of Midsummer's Eve on the hundreds of islands surrounding Helsinki, when the sun makes its temporary dip below the horizon and the traditional koko fires blaze; of the Midnight Sun, which, in Longyear City, can be seen for about four months each year; of the long polar night with the Aurora Borealis, or northern lights, "shimmering and flitting through the dark pavilions of the sky"; of the unfamiliar constellations observed by the people of Wellington—Crux, the celebrated Southern Cross, and Musca, the Fly; and of the zodiacal light, a ghostly glowing cone seen best in the tropics. Here is a book for anyone who wonders what the stars are like beyond the horizon, and for the traveler, who can find delight in knowing something about the many faces of the firmament.

HOKE, HELEN. *Puns, Puns, Puns*. New York 21: Franklin Watts, Inc., 699 Madison Avenue. 1958. 224 pp. \$2.95. There is a theory that no one actually approves of puns; but it is a definite fact that practically everyone—whatever his age—does enjoy them hilariously, if he has any sense of humor at all. This book has a wide range of riotous laugh-ables, pun wise: the hundreds of stories in here are of all kinds. From the classification Range Places through Sheer Foodishness, You Auto Go for These, Welded Bliss, Lawn Order, down to Pun and Games, there is something for everyone's funny bone. Some who perpetrate the best thinking here, pun-wise, are Sage Sam, Educated Eddie, Doleful Donald, Cautious Cathie, Dopey Dan, Major Moppus, and Curious Carl. With their necessarily differing points of view, they assure real variety in the gems herein contained.

HUGHES, LANGSTON, and ARNA BONTEMPS, editors. *The Book of Negro Folklore*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 656 pp. \$6.50. No greater contribution has been made to

American culture than that of the Negro people. From the earliest days of our history to modern times, Negro music, songs, stories, and poetry have enriched the civilization of our country. The authors, whose own works have become an integral part of the Negro cultural heritage, have gathered in this volume a wealth of representative selections from the folklore of the Negro in the United States, ranging from ante-bellum days to the present, and originating on the plantation and the levee, in Old New Orleans, Chicago, and Harlem. Included are the animal tales and rhymes (such as those of Brer Rabbit), games, spirituals and blues as well as modern gospel songs, jazz, and jive. There are early slave memories, accounts of hoodoo and ghost stories, together with contemporary folk tales derived from today's race relations and sections of songs, poetry, and prose in the folk manner by leading Negro writers and musicians.

MANNIX, D. P. *Those About To Die*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 144 pp. 35¢. Here is the story of the ancient Roman games which started as gladiatorial contests between warriors and were degraded through the centuries into the wildest public massacres in the history of perverted pleasure.

MASTERS, R. V. *How They Got Their Start*. New York 16: Sterling Publishing Company, Inc., 419 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 191 pp. \$2.50. A Fuller-brushman turned preacher, a page boy who rose to be chairman of the N. Y. Stock Exchange, an apprentice nurse who became one of the nation's leading cosmeticians, and a baker who flourished in spite of an allergy to flour are just a few of the 36 representative men and women, all leaders in their field, described in this book of career profiles. Reading like an abbreviated who's who, here are the behind-the-scenes success stories of such fabulous personalities as: aeronautics expert, Jimmy Doolittle, innovating publisher of *The Reader's Digest*, Dewill Wallace; New York Yankee star, Joe DiMaggio; the late Claire McCardell, All-American Dress Designer; football coach, Bob Zuppke; real estate potentate, William Zeckendorf; John Foster Dulles; Alec Guinness, Joan Crawford, and many, many others.

Most important to young people, this book emphasizes the characteristics of determination, hard work, single-minded purpose, and pluck that led each of these people to recognize and grasp opportunity and turn it into success. A valuable guidance tool, this book of career examples should stimulate and encourage young people to develop the confidence and drive necessary to get ahead.

MENNINGER, C., and others. *Blueprint for Teen-Age Living*. New York 16: Sterling Publishing Co., Inc., 419 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 224 pp. \$2.95. The Greeks had a word for it—"Know thyself." Today teenagers face the problem of self-knowledge and self-realization in a very sharp degree. Our fast-changing world demands flexibility and emotional maturity. For youngsters who want to steer a straight course toward these goals comes excellent straight-thinking advice from eleven experts, all well-known social scientists in this book. This book, with its lively illustrations, discusses ticklish situations and problems each teenager faces. From the perennial task of meeting gracefully the usual "My but you've grown" adult comment to the job of successfully handling social problems of dating, getting along with a crowd, etc., this book provides help for youth in solving his everyday problem.

MILES, BETTY, and REMY CHARLIP. *What Is the World?* New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 44 pp. \$3. This book is

composed of a brief text and colorful, modern, and beautifully designed pictures drawn by Remy Charlip. The theme is that the world is everything. In the text Betty Miles gives answers to her own child's questions. These answers capture poetically the most important features of a young person's world.

MYERS, M. N. *The Courting-Lamp Mystery*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company, 383 Madison Avenue. 1958. 190 pp. \$3. Julie Cameron stopped to admire the antique glassware sparkling in the sunny window of the Ann Crane gift shop. To sensitive Julie, who loved decorative old things, the glassware was beautiful, and for the first time that day she forgot her failures and the problems that faced her this summer.

When the Camerons reached their summer home on Cape Cod that morning, Julie had to begin to face getting along with her family, with each member pulling in a different direction. Her father, a research man, locked himself away in his study, her brother Keith lived for his chemistry experiments, while her sister Sybil was the intellectual of the family. How could Julie who hadn't the same brains or talents build an independent life for herself? And then there was the immediate problem of Julie's having to tell her brilliant family that she, Julie Cameron, had flunked out of college in her senior year.

Many things happened later which helped Julie face her problems with a new point of view. She found her talent for color arrangements and decoration could be put to good use. Then she met Brad, a young photographer, who understood her romantic temperament and interests. And lastly, through her discoveries about the enigma of the courting lamp, Julie gained a new understanding of herself and a new confidence.

New World Writing #14. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 320 pp. 75¢. A cross section of stories, poetry, essays, drawings, and drama from writers all over the world.

POHL, FREDERIK, editor. *Star Science Fiction Stories #4*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 157 pp. 35¢. This is a collection of 9 science stories by as many different authors; also an introduction by the author.

TYLER, POYNTZ, editor. *Airways of America*. New York 52: The H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue. 1958. 189 pp. \$2. This book explores many aspects of this timely subject, dealing authoritatively with the plane as an instrument of trade and commerce and with the men and women who have made it the predominant means of public transportation in the United States, and offering a glimpse into the jet-powered future. The book is divided into three main sections: From the Ground Up; The Crowded Sky; and Jets and Beyond. There are a total of 27 timely and provocative articles in this book, as well as a 9-page bibliography of books, pamphlets, and pertinent articles from various periodicals.

PRESCOTT, D. A. *Factors That Influence Learning*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press. 1958. 83 pp. \$1. This is the annual Horace Mann Lectureship in commemorating the life of this famous educator.

SCHICKEL, RICHARD. *The Civil War at a Glance*. Madison 10, Wisconsin: Americana Press, 2038 Pennsylvania Avenue. 1958. 24 pp. An attractive booklet giving stories about major events in the war—also pictures of leading officers in the war. Also available from the same source are the following instructive and attractive booklets: *America's Success Story* (16 pp.) by L. M. Hacker, *The Supreme Court of the United States* (24 pp.) by

David Fillman, *The American School* (20 pp.) by L. A. Cremin and Merle Borrowman, *Documents of Freedom* (20 pp.) by P. F. Sharp, *Early Rails* (24 pp.) by R. N. Current, *Early American Recipes* (16 pp.) Lenore Sullivan, *Here's What Corporation Means* (24 pp.) Frank Graner, *The American Realm* (How Our Country Grew)—(24 pp.) by Richard Schickel, and *They Called the Land "Ouisconsin"* (24 pp.) by J. I. Clark. For prices write to the publisher.

SHAFFER, JACK. *101 Tests To Quiz Yourself*. New York 16: Sterling Publishing Company, Inc., 419 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 128 pp. \$2.50. College or career bound? This book is written to the many thousands of young people who will be taking College Entrance Board exams or vocational aptitude tests at some point before launching on a career, on the job or at school. This book contains over 100 self-quizzes for the purpose of testing the individual's word power, memory, visual perception, reasoning powers, mathematical judgment, mechanical skill, manual dexterity and the important characteristics of accuracy, thoroughness, precision, creative imagination, and even personality traits. It contains complete directions for taking and scoring each quiz. Answers are provided in the back of the book.

SHAKESPEARE, WILLIAM—edited by L. B. WRIGHT and VIRGINIA LA MAR. *Julius Caesar*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 234 pp. 35¢. This edition of *The Tragedy of Julius Caesar* is designed to make available a readable text of one of Shakespeare's most popular plays. In the centuries since Shakespeare, many changes have occurred in the meanings of words, and some clarification of Shakespeare's vocabulary may be helpful. To provide the reader with necessary notes in the most accessible format, they have been placed on the pages facing the text that they explain. The editors have tried to make these notes as brief and simple as possible. Preliminary to the text, they have also included a brief statement of essential information about Shakespeare and his stage. Readers desiring more detailed information should refer to the books suggested in the references, and, if still further information is needed, the bibliographies in those books will provide the necessary clues to the literature of the subject.

The early texts of all of Shakespeare's plays provide only inadequate stage directions, and it is conventional for modern editors to add many that clarify the action. Such additions, and additions to entrances, are placed in square brackets. All illustrations are from material in the Folger Library collections.

SHOCKET, M. *Cinq Années De Français, Vol. III*. New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 East 58th Street. 1958. 176 pp. \$1.50. One of the main features of this third book of the course is the systematic consolidation (particularly of an oral nature) of the material previously introduced. Friends of the first two books will find in each chapter the familiar pattern of reading, oral drill, written exercises, guided composition and vocabulary, with, at the end of the book, formal grammar, verb tables, a phonetic supplement, an index to the grammatical material in each lesson, and a full vocabulary.

The principles set out in the Preface to Book I have been followed, and a constant attempt has been made to capture the pupil's interest on some common, yet reasonably elevated ground, introducing a little more French literature and as many aspects as possible of French civilization. Here is a full and varied year's work, which could, in the vital third year, lay the foundations for future scholarship. To this end questions have been included as an essential challenge to the brighter student. Wise teachers will, of course, help less gifted pupils over these hurdles.

SLICK, TOM. *Permanent Peace*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1958. 191 pp. \$2.95. The heart of the book is a plan for total disarmament, meshed with the growth of a collective security force, within the framework of the United Nations. Units of this force, retained by the home countries, and a system of inspection and control, guarantee the safety and the security of all participating powers. No nation is called on to reduce its military power until after the creation of equally effective collective defense forces.

The author exposes the flaws in our present disarmament policy and gives a clear, provocative review of United Nations actions for peace. Point by point, he compares his plan with others less complete and, in his opinion, less feasible. His analysis brilliantly illumines the subject of foreign affairs and peace planning. His plan, in its clarity and completeness and in its imaginative sweep, compels a careful reevaluation by each reader of the problem of collective security.

SNOW, E. R. *Great Sea Rescues*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 284 pp. \$4. The author presents nineteen accounts of the struggle of man to save lives, whether his own or those of fellow human beings, from the insatiable greed of death that pervades the deep. Danger lurks in many guises at sea, and storms, reefs, ice, and fire in every part of the world all seek to take their toll in these true stories. There are chronicles of hairbreadth escapes from pirates and creatures of the deep, such as Mocha Dick, purported to be the original of the Great White Whale immortalized by Herman Melville. Many are told in the words of eyewitnesses themselves, from a document that dates back more than two hundred years to the author's account of his own joust with death in Boston Harbor during the early part of this century. Each portrays man in extremis when a false move could spell his end.

SPIILHAUS, ATHELSTAN. *Satellite of the Sun*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1958. 119 pp. \$3.50. This is an introduction to geophysics—the physics of the earth—by the Dean of the Institute of Technology at the University of Minnesota. The book deals with “the bulk of the earth, from the rocky substance on the surface right down to the hot liquid metal center”; with the water that covers all but a quarter of our planet's surface; with the air we breathe and fly in; and with the region where the atmosphere peters out to nothingness. It investigates such subjects as meteors and meteorites, airglow, cosmic rays, the earth's origin, the size and shape of the earth, what the fiery inside of the earth is made of, what the landscape at the bottom of the ocean looks like, how the two ends of the earth differ, and why the poles are important.

Also discussed are the instruments and vehicles used to study the inaccessible portions of the earth and its atmosphere—such as the seismograph, which records earthquakes, and the artificial satellite, which tells us, among other things, about cosmic rays and the number and size of meteors. Finally the author raises the question, “What uses will we make of all this knowledge of earth, sun, and space?” This leads to a provocative discussion of such projects as air-conditioning the outdoors and changing the climate.

SYMONS, ARTHUR. *Soldiers and What They Do*. New York 21: Franklin Watts, Inc., 699 Madison Avenue. 1958. 253 pp. \$3.95. Not only young men approaching the draft age, but American citizens of all ages, will be interested in this book about the United States Army, its duties and responsibilities. The author, a professional Army man himself, describes in interesting

detail what the draftee can expect when he enters the army, what opportunities for study and advancement are open to him, and how his Army experience can help him in later life. For the young man planning to make the Army his career, there is detailed information on all branches of the service. The author also includes chapters on the WACs, their duties and opportunities, on Army rank and pay, and on training for civilian jobs.

TAYLOR, HENRY. *The Statesman*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 160 pp. 50¢. A classic on the subject of personal advancement—strategy in government and business.

TUNIS, EDWIN. *Colonial Living*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company, 2231 W. 110th Street. 1957. 160 pp. (8¾" x 12"). \$4.95. Here, in the inimitable Tunis style, is a vigorous re-creation of 17th- and 18th-century America—of the everyday living of those sturdy men and women who carved a way of life out of the wilderness. In lively text and accurate drawings, we see the dugouts and wigwags of New England's first settlers and the houses they learned to build against the cruel winters; the snug Dutch and Flemish farm-houses of Nieuw Amsterdam; the homes of the early planters in the South which would one day be kitchens for the houses they dreamed of building when tobacco had made them rich.

Long research and love for his subject have given the author an intimate knowledge of the details of daily living in colonial times, from the period of tiny coastal settlements to the flourishing, interdependent colonies which fought a major war for independence. He shares all with his reader—the building of houses, with their trunnels, girts, and hand-hewn beams, the spinning of yarn and its weaving and dyeing, the making of candles and soap, the intricate business of cooking on the open hearth with lug poles, cranes, bake kettles, and spits. He describes the early crops, and pictures the implements and animals used to produce them; in detailed pictures, we see again the tools and products of the craftsmen—the blacksmith, the cooper, the miller, the joiner, and the silversmith. Here, too, are the clothes they wore, from the velvet pelisse of the planter's wife to the iron collar and rough garments of the bondsman. The author has brought the significant past to life with consummate skill. Rich in enjoyment, rich in information, with more than 200 drawings, his book is a warm, lively, and authentic panorama of a lost way of life.

TUNIS, EDWIN. *Oars, Sails and Steam*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company, 2231 W. 110th Street. 1952. 78 pp. (8¾" x 12"). \$3.50. Children and grown men have always, in their hearts if not in actuality, gone down to the sea in ships. The appeal of the sea is universal and lasting, and innumerable books have been written about it. But in all the vast literature about the sea, this is a book which will no doubt find its way into the library of everyone who loves ships and the sea, who has labored lovingly over boat models, and who finds in the evolution of shipbuilding the pageantry and romance of the growth of civilization.

The author knows and loves ships, and he has utilized his very special skill and knowledge to produce the beautiful, detailed pictures in this book. He has drawn the most interesting and important types of boats of which we have any record; they appear in chronological order and reveal, more clearly than text alone could, each advance, each new principle incorporated into sailing vessels to make sailing and navigation easier and better.

To his fine drawings he has added clear, simple diagrams and a glossary of sea-going terms. Beginning with what was probably the first boat, a dugout, he has included canoes, Egyptian boat models, Greek war galleys, a Roman trireme, Roman merchantman, Norse Osebery ship, English warship, arrack, Elizabethan galleon, Elizabethan crumster, U. S. frigate, Fulton's *Clermont*, privateer, steamer, clipper ship, whaling brig, windjammer, destroyer, battleship, aircraft carrier, battle cruiser, and many others.

With the perspective of the historian and a great deal of humor, the author has accompanied his drawings with a charming and historically accurate text which explains why these boats are interesting and how they were developed. His detailed drawings of riggings, how a gun crew functions, and other operations of sea-going craft are remarkable for their clarity and accuracy, and his marginal explanations of sea terminology are historically interesting and of inestimable value in understanding the sailing modes of other days.

This is a most beautiful one-volume pictorial and textual history of sailing. Each ship develops a personality of its own for the reader under the magic of the author's skill—and each page becomes a new adventure in the chain of man's progress on the sea. From the first venture on a tiny stream to the present epic of the huge ocean-going vessel, the romance of men and ships is beautifully written and illustrated; man's ingenuity is remarkably documented.

TUNIS, EDWIN. *Weapons*. Cleveland 2, Ohio: The World Publishing Company, 2231 W. 110th Street. 1954. 156 pp. (8¾" x 12"). \$4.95. Whether weapons fascinate or repel you, you need only thumb through the pages of this book to discover for yourself one of the most fascinating and provocative books you've seen in a long time. For it is the rich and exciting story, in text and picture, of arms through the ages—from the first tied stone thrown by prehistoric man to the super bombs of our own day.

Illustrated with the detailed and realistic drawings of the author, it is a weapon-by-weapon account of man's ingenuity in the invention and improvement of arms for defense and offense. The detailed and sardonically humorous text is filled with useful information and anecdotes that bring history to life in romantic fashion, for the author is just as interested in the human-interest story behind the weapon and in the men who used it as he is in the weapon itself.

The range of man's weapons over the centuries of man's existence on earth is astounding. The book begins with the Stone Age, its slings and spears, its axes and bows and arrows, and follows through to the Copper and Bronze Ages when man made chariots, swords and daggers; then advances to the Iron Age, with its swords, helmets, and complicated siege weapons. Have you ever heard of the testudo, the onager, the ballista? The sight of these weapons threw terror into the hearts of those in many a beleaguered city. The highly fortified castles of the Normans, the tournaments of the knights in the Dark Ages, the change in manners of war and uniforms of war, the buzz bombs, the rockets, the atom and hydrogen bombs of the present . . . all these things and more are included in this book. The author writes and draws with rare skill, and this pictorial and textual history of man and his weapons is a treasury of lore and information of interest to everyone.

TUNIS, EDWIN. *Wheels*. Cleveland 2, Ohio: The World Publishing Company, 2231 W. 110th Street. 1955. 96 pp. (8¾" x 12"). \$3.95. Nothing like the wheel exists in nature. Man has had to develop the idea—his greatest

invention—out of his own brain. In this book, the author depicts, in a happy partnership of accurate drawing and lucid text, the history of man's victory over space and inertia.

Beginning with the first primitive form of roller—the wheel before it could be called a wheel—he leads the reader through the 5,000-year history of land transportation from the Elamite chariot, the first wheeled vehicle of which we know, through Egyptian, Assyrian, Greek, Roman, Chinese carriages, chariots, carts, through the centuries' development of the road coaches—and the roads themselves—of Europe, right up to the double-decker transcontinental bus coasting along the modern superhighway.

Re-creating in striking pictures what could up to now be found only in words, and, in some instances, depicting vehicles never before pictured in such detail, the author parades before the delighted eye realistic drawings of the victoria, the landau, the berline; the Stutz Bearcat and the Roman racing chariot, the hansom cab, the high-wheeled "ordinary" bicycle, the original Selden automobile, even the famous Maxwell and the surrey with the fringe on top.

Here is an absorbing chapter of man's social history. From log roller to motor car, in drawings so realistic and prose so descriptive you can hear the leather creak and the axles screech, the author has created a book to be enjoyed from cover to cover.

WARD, F. E. *The Cowboy at Work*. New York 22: Hastings House, 151 E. 50th Street. 1958. 307 pp. \$8.50. This book is written by an oldtimer who has lived through it all and who tells here, in the racy lingo of the open range, exactly how to do it. Clearly illustrated by the author's own drawings and diagrams—more than 500 of them—are specific instructions ranging from how to make a 12-plait rawhide knot and the proper set of your bootheels to wielding the branding iron.

Do you want to know how to throw a half-diamond hitch? How to trap wild mustangs? How each part of the cowhand's saddle is rigged and used? Do you know how to "simmer down" a restless herd and who does what in a roundup? Do you know exactly what the well-dressed cowboy wears—and why? Do you know the recipe for that renowned item of cow-camp chuck, S. B. stew? All these bits of cow country lore and much, much more are authentically described in the vivid language of the men who ride the range for a living.

For here is the authoritative cowboy manual, by a famous professional of the old school. For Ward has spent a lifetime "sittin'" on a horse. He has busted broncs and competed in rodeos, has himself designed patented cowboy equipment. His descriptions of cowpoke techniques are always as colorful as they are precise, and his drawings are as informative as they are expert.

YOST, B. W. *Bread Upon the Sands*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1958. 245 pp. \$5. As told by his youngest daughter, here is the story of W. F. Williams, Indian trader, his wife and family, together with an account of their interesting and sometimes dramatic experiences at Red Lake Trading Post, forty-five miles northwest of Winslow, Arizona. At the age of seven, Billie Williams Yost went with her parent, her two brothers and her sister, into the broad and unsettled country of northern Arizona. During their fifteen-year sojourn on the Navajo reservation, from 1914 to 1929, her father served the Indians with consideration and understanding. Mrs. Yost writes in an honest, straightforward manner of the years at the trading post.

She tells of the close family life, of their relations with the Indians, of the smallpox epidemic of 1917, of a cattle stampede, of the murder of a neighboring trader by two Indians, and of the burning of her father's post to cover the crime.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

ANTELL, HENRY, editor. *Intercom*. Flushing 66, New York: Parsons Junior High School, 168 Queens, 158-40 76 Road. 1958 (December). 71 pp. Devoted to the theme—"Developing Talents." This is a publication of the junior high schools of New York City.

Communist Activities of the Cuban Rebels. Washington 6, D. C.: Universal Research and Consultants, 221 Dupont Circle Building. 1958. 15 pp. Mimeo. Discusses their operations and gives background information.

Disadvantaged Children and the World of Work. New York 16: National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue. 1958 (November). 24 pp. Contains seven articles: "Adolescence and the World of Work," "The School Drop-Out," "The Uneducables," "Children on the Move," "Children of Low-Income Farm Families," "Minority Youth," and "Juvenile Delinquents."

Education Directory, 1958-59. Part 2—Counties and Cities. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 99 pp. 45¢. A directory of public, Catholic parochial, and Lutheran parochial school superintendents. The public school listing includes county, supervisory district or union, and urban schools by states.

The Education of College Teachers. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 522 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 20 pp. At the 52nd annual meeting of the Foundation, the trustees had an all-day discussion of this subject. This publication is a brief summary of the day's discussion.

A Fifth of a City. Newton, Massachusetts: The Newton Public Schools. 1958. 60 pp. The 118th annual report of the superintendents and school committee. Discusses the "Newton Plan"—a résumé and forecast of the various modifications that are under experimentation in the instructional program of the school system. Also includes the financial report of the year 1956-57.

The French System of Education. New York 21: French Cultural Services, 972 Fifth Avenue. 1958 (November). 50 pp. Explains the general outlines of the organizations of the French educational system.

Guide for Industrial Arts Education in California. Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1958. 48 pp. (8½" x 11"). This guide briefly describes the elements of the California industrial arts program and offers a framework that should be interpreted and applied in terms of curriculum and facilities provided by a local school district.

Homemaker Service. Washington 25, D. C. Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 36 pp. 15¢. A tested way of keeping families together in times of crisis in our increasingly mobile society is described in this Children's Bureau publication. The pamphlet describes how this method can be used in many situations where relatives formerly could come in and take over. That was in the days when relatives as a rule were geographically closer to each other than they are today. First established in this country as a method of providing care for children and the home when the mother was absent because of illness or other cause, *Homemaker Service* today is used to aid families under a variety of circumstances.

The publication *Homemaker Service* is one of the number of materials which are being prepared for a National Conference on Homemaker Services, to be held in Chicago, Illinois, on February 10-11, 1959. The Conference, which is sponsored by 8 units of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and 26 national voluntary agencies, will seek to encourage the spread of this service to communities throughout the country. More than 400 persons are expected to attend.

How Good Are Your Schools? Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, Council on Instruction, 1201 16th Street, N. W. 1958. 32 pp. The intensive consideration of our schools, suggested by the questions in this booklet, is based upon the conviction that quality education is of highest priority in our society today. This booklet begins with a few general considerations to be kept in mind as you study your local school's program. The questions which follow in later pages suggest crucial areas of concern that determine the quality of a school program.

JOHNSTON, M. C., editor. *Modern Foreign Languages in the High School*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 172 pp. \$1. Contains the proceedings of the 3-day conference (May 8-10, 1957) called by the U. S. Commissioner of Education to consider how modern foreign language programs in the high school may be redesigned to serve better the national need.

KEELON, J. K. *Tested Problems for Calculators and Listing Machines*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Book Division, Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1959. 79 pp. \$1.48. This book provides students with an abundance of realistic problems drawn from modern business. These problems do not teach how to use any make of machine, but provide practice work for all kinds of calculators and listing machines. Thus students develop skill which they can apply to the problems they will meet in business. The book can be used in any business machines class or in any course including training on calculators and listing machines. It contains concise directions with emphasis placed on applying skill; problems taken from the most common kinds met in modern offices; realistic problems in print, typewriter type, and longhand, just as they do in actual office situations; and "self-improvement" pages for rating progress in skill-building.

Looking at Your School. Chicago 11: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 700 North Rush Street. 1958. 32 pp. A guide book to help PTA members as they join with school boards and educators to extend and improve educational opportunities. The book is composed of questions and answers divided into areas as guideposts to enable members to locate strengths and weaknesses in education for study with the purpose of providing more and better education for the youth of the nation.

MAHAR, M. H. *Certification of School Librarians*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 81 pp. 30¢. Includes an interpretation of state policies in certification of school librarians and the specific certification requirements for school librarians by states and territories; also includes a list of titles and addresses of state school library supervisors, of state directors of teacher education and certification, and tabular data on certification requirements.

NOWAK, M. A. *A Sound Survey of the Geometric School Plant*. College Station: Texas Engineering Experiment Station, Texas A and M College. 1958 (September). 20 pp. This is a report on the results of a survey of

teachers interviewed in the 14 schools surveyed for their reactions and of sound measurements made of the various conditions brought out by the interviews. Of the teachers interviewed, 34 per cent claimed that noise was disturbing from adjoining classrooms, 23 per cent complained of corridor noise, and 16 per cent complained of various types of interferences such as highway traffic, aircraft, playground activities, sidewalk traffic, and squeaky doors. Contains charts and diagrams. Of help to those planning new school buildings.

Reading List for the Theme Center "The Individual as a Member of the Group." Brooklyn: Board of Education of the City of New York, Bureau of Curriculum Research. Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston Street. 1958. 72 pp. 25¢. A 10-grade guide for experimentation with the course of study in *English-Speech Language Arts* for senior high schools. Includes a list of readings, suggested films, and a bibliography.

STARR, MARK. *Labor and the American Way*, revised and enlarged. New York 3: Oxford University Press, Inc., 222 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 96 pp. The purpose of this pamphlet is to present in compact, up-to-date, and authentic form the essential facts about labor unions in the United States. The text traces the evolution of the American labor movement out of conditions that existed in the past, analyzes how the unions are actually functioning in the present, and suggests the probable lines of development that await them in the future.

While this pamphlet is designed primarily for social studies classes in high schools, it is believed that it will also be found highly suitable for college classes, union classes, other adult study groups, and general readers. The language is simple, but without any trace of "writing down," and the level of ideas is thoroughly adult. The author writes with a background of many years of participation in trade union activities, and as an experienced expositor of labor's aims, through both the spoken and the written word.

The text of this pamphlet is supplemented by a variety of visual material, designed to arouse the reader's interest and to point up the background and the implications of the subject. Many of these drawings have been selected (as indicated in each case) from union publications, especially those of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. Aside from the inherent merits of these drawings, some of them have the added value of presenting graphically the attitudes of leading unions toward specific labor problems, and also toward broader national and international issues, such as Communism.

The Superior Student, Vol. 1, No. 5. Boulder: University of Colorado, Hellems 112. 1958. 16 pp. A newsletter of the Inter-University Committee on the Superior Student published monthly during the academic year.

Supervised Correspondence Study in High Schools. Chicago 37: The American School, Drexel Avenue at 58th Street. 1958. 16 pp. An outline of suggestions for school officials.

Taking the Grief Out of Grievances in Public School Systems. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1958. 8 pp. This brochure was produced because the Commission has observed that in most cases where services have been requested, differences could have been settled within the school system itself, without outside assistance, if a vehicle had existed in the first instance for the orderly consideration of the problem by the people concerned.

This Is Orange. Cleveland 2: Orange High School, 3200 Chagrin Boulevard, Pepper Pike Village. 1958. 34 pp. A handbook for Parents explaining

the vast detail that goes into the operation of a secondary educational program. An attractive and informative publication. Printed.

Wake Up and Read! New York 18: National Library Week, 24 W. 40th Street. 1958. 46 pp. An organization handbook for National Library Week, April 12-18, 1959. Offers suggestions for organization and activities at the community level.

When You Buy. Philadelphia: Curriculum Office, School District of Philadelphia. 1958. 123 pp. This booklet has been planned by the Secondary School General Mathematics Curriculum Committee under the direction of the Curriculum Office of the Philadelphia Public Schools. A 3-year course in general mathematics has been designed to satisfy the mathematical needs of pupils who are enrolled in curriculums not requiring algebra, geometry, and trigonometry and of pupils who will probably terminate their formal education at an early date. It is organized around three definite centers of interest—the worker (Math 1 and 2), the consumer (Math 3 and 4) and the citizen (Math 5 and 6). This booklet is composed of 4 units—When You Buy Consumable Goods, When You Buy Durable Goods, When You Borrow Money, and When You Buy Shelter. It contains problems based on local situations. *Teachers' Manual* (33 pp.) contains the answers to the problems together with notes and suggestions.

News Notes

THE NCA PROJECT ON GUIDANCE AND MOTIVATION OF SUPERIOR AND TALENTED STUDENTS

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, through its various members, has long been committed to the principle that schools in the United States must provide appropriate and effective education for all of her young people. This includes appropriate and effective education for superior and talented students. On March 21, 1958, the NCA's Commission on Research and Service, as the result of careful study, planning, and an articulate proposal, received a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York to conduct a two-year study entitled "The Guidance and Motivation of Superior and Talented Students." Another step was thus taken toward one of the most important goals of American secondary education—that of assisting all students to develop their capabilities to the fullest.

The Project seeks to encourage the careful identification of students who rank nationally in the upper twenty-five per cent on tests of achievement and mental ability; to promote increased guidance services for the students selected, and to motivate them to pursue further formal education. It is generally agreed that students in the upper quarter of the nation's high-school population are the ones most apt to succeed in colleges and universities. Therefore, as a result of this Project, which involves one hundred carefully selected schools in the nineteen NCA states, it is hoped that each student in the experimental group will carefully consider enrolling in a degree-granting college or university. Nevertheless, not all superior and talented youth so identified will choose to enter

college. Some of them with special interests and abilities will advisedly take high-school programs which prepare them for mechanical occupations including trades, and for business occupations, including secretarial work. In such instances, however, it is likely that additional formal training beyond the secondary school will be desirable. A basic purpose of the Project is to ensure each superior and talented student the opportunity to think through the consequences of his future plans with a full knowledge of his abilities and aptitudes.

A team consisting of an administrator and a counselor was selected by each school in the Project to attend a one-week summer workshop. Each team developed, and presented during the workshop, a tentative action program for the superior and talented students in their school. These programs became firm commitments when they were modified and approved at the local level. Most of the action programs include provisions for the following:

1. *Careful identification* of the superior and talented students through mental ability tests, achievement tests, past performances, demonstrated interests, and teacher observations.

2. *Intensive counseling* involving at least three interviews and/or counseling sessions per semester with each superior and talented student. The purposes of these counseling sessions are:

- a. To inform the student of his abilities and to assist him in developing a realistic concept of himself.
- b. To assist him in developing educational and occupational goals and plans appropriate to his abilities.
- c. To assist him in evaluating his school achievement continuously and systematically.

3. *Conditions for motivating* superior and talented students, through counseling, challenging classes, and special recognition in the school and community.

4. *More effective programs* of enrichment within the regular classes, the development of special classes, or acceleration in a curricular unit.

5. *Close school-home-community cooperation* based upon mutual understanding and support.

6. *Effective evaluation of results* through the collection and analysis of pertinent data about each student so identified.

As a result of these action programs in the one hundred selected secondary schools, it is believed that superior and talented students will: (a) make and carry out more appropriate educational and occupational plans; (b) attain achievement levels more commensurate with their abilities; and (c) receive greater motivation to continue their education beyond the high school.

It is believed that from this Project will come techniques, methods, and procedures for identifying superior and talented students which will be applicable in many secondary schools in the United States.—J. Ned Bryan and Bruce Shertzer.

SUMMER INSTITUTE SCHOLARSHIPS FOR SCIENCE TEACHERS

University of Nevada has been granted \$57,400 by the National Science Foundation to establish a summer institute for high-school science teachers next year on the Reno campus. The grant was made possible under a nationwide program set up by the National Science Foundation designed especially for high-school teachers of physics, mathematics, and chemistry. The objectives of the summer institute program, as outlined by the National Science Founda-

tion, are: "To improve the subject matter competence of the participating teachers; to strengthen the capacity of these teachers for motivating able students to consider careers in science; to bring these teachers into personal contact with prominent scientists who participate in the institute, with a view to stimulating the interest of the teachers and increasing their prestige professionally; and to effect greater mutual understanding and appreciation of each other's teaching problems among teachers of science and mathematics at both the high-school and college levels.

Dr. Armstrong, President of the University, states that, under the terms of the grant, high-school teachers accepted for study will receive \$75 per week plus allowances for books, travel expenses, and dependents and that there will be no charge for tuition or fees. The 1959 NSF summer institute will be in session for eight weeks, from June 22 through August 14. There are funds for approximately 50 stipends.

Three areas—physics, chemistry, and mathematics—will be covered. Those participating can earn a total of eight college credits. Two sections of class will be taught simultaneously, thus allowing for grading of ability and previous experience. The institute in Reno will differ somewhat from the national program in that other institutes are usually held in heavily populated areas and are aimed at teachers who have had a broad background in science. Because of Nevada's geographic location and the distance in miles between populated areas, the University of Nevada's 1959 NSF summer institute will be designed for teachers in small high schools who sometimes are called upon to teach two or three science courses but may have majored in only one.

MULTIPLE DIPLOMAS

A request for consideration of the awarding of multiple diplomas evoked brief discussion at a meeting of the Executive Board on Instructional Policy of the Denver (Colorado) Public Schools. Wilford Woody, Principal of West High School, reported that a group of principals had been studying multiple diplomas for more than two years and that no recommendation for change of present practice has been forthcoming. Further discussion brought out the fact that many school systems which have issued multiple diplomas in the past have returned to the practice of offering a single diploma. In some instances, more than one hundred different diplomas have been issued by a single school system.

Investigation by *Instruction News* revealed that advocates of multiple diplomas have widely differing ideas about the function of the diploma: a document to denote the quality of high-school work: excellent, good, average, poor; a comprehensive record of the accomplishments, qualities, and abilities of the student; and a certificate showing the type of preparation gained in high school: college preparatory, commercial, industrial arts, agricultural, general, and certificate of attendance. Consensus of studies and opinions published during the past two years indicates that one diploma is desired by a majority of systems.—*Instruction News*, Denver Public Schools.

THE VALEDICTORIAN

The National Citizens Council for Better Schools has recently published a 12-page pamphlet entitled *Dr. Conant Looks at American High Schools*. This is a condensation of Dr. Conant's recommendation for improving the American high school. A full report is now available. Among the recommendations is

one that high schools stop selecting valedictorians of a graduating class and that, in its place, a list of honor graduates be designated. The address of the National Citizens Council for Better Schools is: 9 East 40th Street, New York City.

SMALL DISTRICT BOASTS BEST TEACHERS' SALARY SCHEDULE

The School Board of Setauket, Long Island, a small community of about 4500, located about 16 miles outside New York City on the north shore of Long Island has adopted a teachers' salary schedule which they believe is superior to all such scales in the country. Outlined here are the features which make them feel it is the best.

Setauket School Salary Schedule—1958-59

<i>Bachelors degree</i>	<i>Masters degree</i>	<i>Masters plus 30</i>	<i>Doctorate</i>
Step 1. \$4800	1. \$5000	1. \$5200	1. \$5400
All yearly increments are of \$325			
Step 14. 9025	15. 9550	16. 10,075	17. 10,600

Features of the schedule include:

1. Maximums are reached in a relatively short time.
2. Earning power during a lifetime is substantially increased by the greater number of years a teacher is able to earn the maximum salary.
3. There are no merit provisions whereby some increments shown on the schedule may never materialize.
4. The relatively large increment provides the opportunity for a young teacher to establish a home and family at an earlier age.
5. The differential of \$525 in the maximums is good incentive to advanced study.
6. A sick leave provision guarantees one-half yearly salary regardless of the length of absence due to illness once 60 days of sick leave are accumulated. Sick leave is cumulative at the rate of 10 days yearly.
7. Sabbatical leave provides two-thirds pay.

AMERICAN EDUCATION

The new interest that the average American takes in the training of his children may be attributed to two different causes. First, the launching of the Sputniks before the American satellites roused the United States citizen from his complacency. The other factor, less evident, is the relationship between the birthrate and the national revenue.

The funds available to secondary schools in the United States enable them to cater for the needs of 70 per cent of young Americans in their 17th year—compared to about 10 per cent in England or France. The universities give higher education to 25 per cent of American young people—total of about 3,000,000 in universities and 8,000,000 in secondary schools; and to this must be added 30,000,000 pupils in primary schools, making a grand total of 41,000,000 children and youth receiving schooling.

Considering all this, the increased interest in education is not surprising. And the structure of American education helps to develop that interest—the fact that there is no education ministry on a national level; that local responsibility for education rests with the counties, cities, and towns; and that parent-teacher associations are very active.—*UNESCO*.

MINNESOTA CONFERS ON EDUCATION

At an Industry-Education Conference, held at Duluth on November 12-15, 1958, over 150 representatives of industry and all levels of education in Minnesota met to review educational problems in the state; appraise existing educational facilities; consider needs for education in science, mathematics, engineering, and related fields; and establish a program for the further development of education. Educators presented their problems and plans for solving them, and people from industry replied with statements of what they hoped education might accomplish and ways in which they could be of help. Discussion was animated, but conciliatory in tone, and clearly directed toward an action program. The Minnesota Conference is one of several in recent years that have been held to improve cooperation between industry and education over large geographical areas.

HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT ON THE INCREASE

The people-counters and the people-guessers at the U. S. Bureau of the Census have come up with some disquieting figures for American educators. By 1965, they say, there will be 195 million people in these United States, with an increase of about 41 per cent in the 14-17 age group—about four million youth. On the other hand, there is expected to be a four per cent drop—from 35 to 34 million—in the 25-39 age group, whence teachers are normally recruited. Summed up: more pupils, fewer teachers.

UTILIZATION OF TEACHER TIME

In this day and age when the accent is on streamlined efficiency, no one feels the squeeze of "not-enough-time-to-do-an-effective-job" more than the classroom teacher in the nation's schools. The Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association, alert to the problems that teachers face in overcrowded classrooms, held a study conference devoted to "The Utilization of Teacher Time" at NEA headquarters in Washington, D. C., November 28-29, 1958.

Commenting on the two-day conference, DCT President Ewald Turner, who is a teacher in the Pendleton, Oregon schools, said: "Classroom teachers are continually faced with new developments in a world of change. They must lead the way in showing our country how it can do a more effective job of educating its youth. This conference gave representative classroom teachers from all over the nation an opportunity to work together to establish criteria for satisfactory working conditions for teachers and to enumerate the essential responsibilities of a professional teacher."

One hundred and fifty teachers from almost every state attended the conference on an invitational basis to swap ideas and to work out some guidelines for teachers everywhere. Participants represented a cross section of experiences as to subjects and grade levels as well as school systems which differ in type and size. The group concentrated on such problems as (1) the time allotment required for efficient teacher preparation in the various subject areas and grade

levels; (2) class size best suited to effective classroom learning; (3) the role of non-instructional activities; and (4) the use of secretarial service and mechanical aids. Miss Anita Ruffing of Bellevue, Ohio, served as chairman of the conference. The DCT headquarters staff, headed by Margaret Stevenson, executive secretary, was in charge of arrangements.

YOUNG SCIENTISTS MEET

This "insurance capital of the world" is getting ready to be the capital of the youthful scientific world next spring. More than 30 representatives of community, business, professional, and educational organizations are coordinating extensive preparations for holding the National Science Fair in Hartford, May 6, through offering unusual opportunities to see science in action to some 350 outstanding high-school scientists. About 600 educators and press representatives will accompany the students and will join in science tours of such installations as the Electric Boat Division of General Dynamics Corporation, the U. S. Naval Submarine Base at New London, the University of Connecticut, the United Aircraft Corporation, Connecticut General Life Insurance Company, Combustion Engineering Nuclear Division, and Mystic Seaport.

The trip to the National Science Fair will be awarded to two top winners, usually a girl and a boy, at each of about 175 regional and state science fairs in continental U. S., Alaska, Hawaii, Japan, Germany, and France. Additional countries also are hoping to join the National Science Fair in time to send their young scientists to Hartford. The 1959 event will be the tenth annual Fair, held in a different section of the country each year. The Fair is conducted by Science Service as part of the National Science Youth Program. Chairman of the Hartford National Science Fair Committee is Richard Henderson, Public Service Director of the *Hartford Times*.

REFERENCE LIST ON JOURNALISM OFFERED

A new reference list on scholastic journalism is now available through the Library Extension Service of the University of Michigan, while other materials useful to teachers of journalism and advisers of school publications are available from the Department of Journalism—Michigan Interscholastic Press Association at the University. The reference list on high-school journalism includes textbooks; books and pamphlets useful for the reference shelf; and books, pamphlets, and periodicals dealing with production of school yearbooks. Copies are free upon request to the Library Extension Service of the University.

Among materials available to teachers and publications advisers through the MIPA office in the Department of Journalism at the University are course outlines, equipment lists, statements concerning purposes of school publications, and similar materials. Several school press conferences and meetings for publications advisers have already been held this year in Michigan. MIPA has sponsored such meetings at Haven Hill, Escanaba, and Alpena; and the *Kalamazoo Gazette* sponsored a school press conference at Western Michigan University.

FILMSTRIP ON CURRENT AFFAIRS

One of the most vital questions of the day for the prospects of world peace or atomic war is *How Strong Is Russia Now?* which is the title of the January filmstrip released by The New York Times Filmstrips on Current Affairs. The filmstrip presents an up-to-the-minute, comprehensive picture of the strengths

and weaknesses of the Soviet Union in terms of its technological and educational strides, improved living conditions, its vastness, its industrial lag, its strait-jacket of ideas and many other areas. It takes up the Krushchev regime, upheavals in the Kremlin, unrest in the Soviet satellites. It deals in detail with the challenge of Russia's sputniks, Soviet expansionist aims, relations between the United States and Russia.

This is the fourth of the 1958-59 series of Filmstrips on Current Affairs. It is in 56 black-and-white frames, for 35-mm projectors, with graphic current and historical photographs, cartoons, maps, and charts. Accompanying each filmstrip is a discussion manual that reproduces each frame and adds below it supplementary information for each frame. The manual also has a general introduction to the subject, discussion questions related to sections of the filmstrip, suggested activities, and suggested reading. The entire series is available for \$15; individual filmstrips cost \$2.50 each. The filmstrips are available from the Office of Educational Activities, The New York Times, 229 West 43rd Street, New York 36, N. Y.

SCHOLARSHIP FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL GUIDANCE COUNSELORS

A pioneering program of summer studies, designed to upgrade the skills of secondary-school guidance counselors is being financed under a grant from the General Electric Educational and Charitable Fund. This program, known as the General Electric Guidance Fellowship program, will be inaugurated next summer at Syracuse University. It is the first guidance program to be conducted jointly by a university and industry.

Fifty high-school guidance counselors from eleven northeastern states and the District of Columbia will be selected by the University to participate in the six-week course for graduate credit. Each all-expense fellowship covers tuition and fees, board and room, and round-trip travel allowance from each counselor's school address. D. Wilbert Dipboye of the University will direct the program. The graduate credit courses are designed to strengthen the professional proficiency of practicing guidance counselors. The unique feature of the program is that plants and personnel of the General Electric Company will also be used to provide counselors with practical experience and background information.

The General Electric Company has conducted similar summer courses for high-school science and mathematics teachers since 1945. An estimated 2200 teachers from 38 states have participated during this time. Syracuse University is one of seven American universities receiving grants totaling \$245,000 for General Electric summer fellowship programs for 250 secondary-school teachers and counselors in 1959.

WHAT IS LOVELIER THAN A TREE

The Forest Service of U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C. has released a new film, *The President Plants a Tree*, (16mm Color, Sound, 7 Minutes). The White House has special significance for all Americans. Each President has left his mark upon his country's "official" residence. Some of the finest contributions to its beauty are the trees which our Presidents have planted on the White House grounds. A number of these trees, whose planting coincide with historic events, are shown in their present-day splendor. Here, in turn, President Eisenhower plants the tree of his selection for future generations to enjoy. This film is appropriate for supplementing teaching of social studies. Grade 4 to adults.

NEW FREE MOTION PICTURE ON SAFETY

A whole side show of funny characters in *Lucky You*, a new 17-minute motion picture in color and sound, demonstrates safety to boys and girls. *Lucky You*, which has just won first prize for educational films in the annual awards of the National Visual Presentation Association, is a contribution of The Coca-Cola Company to the cause of personal safety. Basic safe practices—at home, at play, on the highway—are presented dramatically so that youngsters will not forget. This is done, in the words of the circus barker, by “the most unusual, death-defying creatures in the universe.”

Produced with the assistance of The Jam Hardy Organization, *Lucky You* introduces creatures that do not have to be careful in traffic, with fire, painting a porch, diving, shooting at targets. Humans, however, are not among these lucky creatures, and *Lucky You* shows that, while there is danger everywhere for those who do not think first, there are certain safe practices which prevent needless injury or even loss of life. These precautions are emphasized in the new picture by both real life photography and the cartoon characters whose antics are not forgotten by either the young or the mature. *Lucky You* is recommended for school use by the National Commission on Safety Education of the National Education Association. The picture was produced with the cooperation of the National Safety Council. Prints for the free use of schools and other organized groups are available through local Coca-Cola bottlers.

TEACHING FILMSTRIPS ON MINERALS

A new and unique series of three filmstrips in color has recently been released. Entitled *Minerals on Parade*, this series deals with the elementary study of the minerals of the earth's crust. It is designed for primary and secondary schools. The author of the filmstrip series, Ronald E. Januzzi, has based both the films and the accompanying teaching text booklet on books he has written both for children and for teachers, and from information he has gathered as a collector and lecturer. Part one shows where and how mineral specimens are found, equipment necessary to find and identify minerals, safety precautions, and various tests to identify minerals. Parts two and three picture actual specimens of about 40 minerals most commonly found, and their commercial uses. The price is \$24 for the set of 3 filmstrips and teaching text booklet, with 15% discount allowed to schools. It is produced and distributed by Sweetman Productions, Bethel, Connecticut.

“TRAVELING” HIGH SCHOOL CHARTERED

A novel “Traveling” High School was provisionally chartered for a period of five years by the Board of Regents at its meeting September 19. The International School of America, Inc., with headquarters in New York City, will take its students around the world while they are attending school. Courses offered will be on the twelfth-grade level and will include a humanities course, world history, science, and French or German. Mathematics will be given as a fifth course to students requiring it.

Students will travel as a group with their teachers around the world for seven and one-half months. Basic travel will be by air with side trips made by various means of transportation. Living accommodations will be at foreign universities, youth pensions or hostels and small hotels. The trip will include 26 days in the United States, 103 days in Europe and 93 days in Asia and the Far East. The school is scheduled to leave October 1, 1959, and return on May 20, 1960.

Founder and executive director of the school is Karl Jaeger of Columbus, Ohio. Preparations are being made to include on the staff outstanding teachers from the university and secondary school level.—*Bulletin to the Schools*, November 1958, New State Department of Education, Albany, New York.

SCHOOL LUNCH FILM

A 23-minute color filmstrip, *Solving School Lunch Problems with Paper*, which was shown at 13 school-lunch workshops last summer in combination with food demonstrations and other program presentations, is now available to school-lunch managers and superintendents. Presenting a nation-wide review of recent developments in the school-lunch field, with examples from 17 schools, the filmstrip includes ideas on proportioning, portion control, making use of a central kitchen, increasing milk and juice consumption, more attractive food displays, cost studies and techniques for setting up an all-paper kitchen, plus paper service for after-school functions.

The film may be shown on any filmstrip projector. A record providing the narration may be played through a record player or PA sound system. The record is cued with an audible beep so that anyone can operate the projector in unison with the narration. The film may be obtained without cost, except for return postage, by writing to the Field Research Division, Paper Cup and Container Institute, 342 Madison Avenue, New York 17, New York.



Scene from slide film, *Solving School Lunch Problems with Paper*, shows all-paper service at Easton, Pennsylvania.

NEW PRINCIPALS ATTEND FOUR ORIENTATION WORKSHOPS

Fifty-nine new and inexperienced principals participated during October in one of the four workshops sponsored by the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction in cooperation with the principals' associations of the state, the superintendents' division, and the Coordinated State-wide Study in Educational Administration. Conferences were held in Clinton, Greensboro, Morganton, and Chapel Hill. More than sixty consultants and visiting educators also attended these meetings.

The structured portion of each conference included a presentation of State Department publications, a discussion of "reports for which principals are responsible," and a talk on the "status of the principalship in North Carolina." James Dunlap was responsible for discussing "reports"; and Dr. J. P. Freeman explained the status of the principalship at each of the four conferences.

Two panels were arranged for the morning session of each conference on the following topics: "Aspects of Organization and Administration Which Are of Particular Significance to Beginning Principals" and "Staff Meetings and Other Approaches Toward the Continuing Growth of Teachers." Panel members included experienced principals, supervisors, college personnel, and members from the State Department. The unstructured portion of the conference was sufficiently flexible that inexperienced principals had opportunities to discuss their interests and problems informally with experienced educators.—*North Carolina Public School Bulletin*, November 1958.

DOLLARS FOR HEALTH

Dollars for Health is a new filmstrip launching a new program of educational services provided by the Health Insurance Institute. This filmstrip was produced in response to requests from teachers for health insurance teaching aids. It was developed with the guidance and counsel of a committee of educational advisers, and with the cooperation of the Educational Division, Institute of Life Insurance, which is distributing the filmstrip. The filmstrip is available on a free loan basis or it may be purchased at \$3 per print from Health Insurance Institute, Education Division, Institute of Life Insurance, 488 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

ARTICLES SUGGESTED FOR READING

"Who Decides What Schools Will Teach?" from *Nation's Schools*, December 1958, pp. 50-59.

"Central Kitchen Provides Lunch for 13,500" by L. H. Bates in *Nation's Schools*, December 1958, pp. 66-70.

"Developing a System of Merit Rating" by Robert L. Hillerich in *School Board Journal*, November 1958, pp. 34-35.

"Stop School Fires!" by Chester I. Babcock in *School Board Journal*, November 1958, pp. 48-49.

"Extending the Horizons for Academically Talented Youth" by Elaine Exton in *School Board Journal*, November 1958, pp. 52-53.

"Ten Uses for Commercial Television in the English Classroom" by James L. Brunstein in *English Journal*, December 1958, pp. 566-569.

"James Madison, the Bill of Rights and Education" by R. Freeman Butts in *Teachers College Record*, December 1958, pp. 121-128.

"Khrushchev's Proposals for Soviet Education" by G. Z. F. Bereday and R. V. Rapacy in *Teachers College Record*, December 1958, pp. 138-149.

"Recent Research on the Talented" by M. L. Goldberg in *Teachers College Record*, December 1958, pp. 150-163.

"The Role of the Guidance Worker in the Schools" by Henry Weitz in *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, December 1958, pp. 266-272.

"Television" in *Fortune*, December 1958. (Another season of second-rate programming has started TV on a self-destructive cycle: program mediocrity reduces audience, reduced audience weakens the medium's economics, weakened economics seem to bring on more mediocrity so states this article.)

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS SERVICE

One hundred twenty-three commercial and business education films are available through the University of Illinois Audio-Visual Aids Service, world's largest educational film lending library. A new booklet lists available commercial and business films that are suitable for various audiences ranging from primary grades through college and beyond. Some are training movies; others are descriptive, informative, or purely entertaining. Films are silent or sound; in black-and-white or color; seven to 60 minutes long; cartoons, dramatizations, or documentaries.

Largest listing of films in the new bulletin comes under a "general" heading including such subjects as "Law of Demand and Supply" and "Science in Business." Other titles range from accounting or banks and banking to business law, consumer education, economics, insurance, office machines, management, and procedures, personal qualities, salesmanship, and shorthand and typing. Many try to answer questions of persons planning to enter various phases of business. Copies of the new bulletin, 1959—*Commercial and Business Films*, may be obtained from Thomas H. Boardman, supervisor of the University of Illinois' Audio-Visual Aids Service, Urbana, or Champaign, Illinois.

RETIREMENT BENEFITS

Federal Taxes on Benefits from Your Retirement System is a 45-page booklet, 8½" x 11", explaining and illustrating how Federal taxes are to be computed by persons who have income in the form of benefits of any kind from a retirement system, including (1) a retirement allowance jointly paid for by the employee and employer (or the state); (2) a supplementary annuity paid for by the employee's unmatched additional deposits to a joint-contributory retirement system; (3) a pension financed wholly by the employer (or the state); (4) an annuity purchased from an insurance company; (5) disability benefits; (6) lump sum and monthly payments to beneficiaries of deceased active and retired employees. Copies of this publication are available for 75 cents per single copy, with discounts for quantity orders as follows: 2-9 copies, 70 cents each; 10-49 copies, 65 cents each; 50-499 copies, 60 cents each; 500-999 copies, 55 cents each; 1,000 or more copies, 45 cents each. Address all orders to Madaline Kinter Remmlein, 1500 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 5, D. C.

APGA CONVENTION

The American Personnel and Guidance Association will hold its annual convention during the week of March 23 to 26, 1959, with headquarters in the Hotel Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio. For information concerning registration

write: John Rowland, Rocky River Public Schools, 2985 Wooster Road, Cleveland, Ohio.

AOEO INTERNATIONAL FLIGHT

The American Overseas Educators Organization wishes to announce that they are organizing a European Group Charter Flight for members and teachers interested in making "Educational Contacts While Traveling in Europe." This organization is composed of exchange and dependents schools' teachers and educators who have taught overseas. The Flight is round trip from Detroit, Michigan, to Frankfurt, Germany, at a cost of \$365. The date to leave Detroit is July 10, 1959, and the return date leaving Frankfurt is August 19. Opportunities for educational contacts made with individuals, institutions, etc., will be made available on an (1) individual basis, or (2) on an organized group basis. Persons interested in either project, please contact Miss Olga E. Shuster, Chairman Flight Arrangements, American Overseas Educators Organization, 16213 Washburn, Detroit 21, Michigan.

SCIENCE SERVICE HANDBOOK

Science Service, 1719 N Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., has a handbook which is being used by science clubs throughout the Nation. It is entitled *Science Clubs of America's Sponsor Handbook* and is available without charge to sponsors of science clubs but may be purchased for one dollar from the above address by other persons.

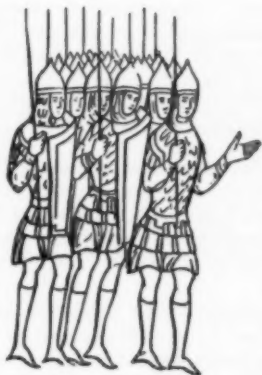
LANGUAGE TRAINING AIDS

Language Training Aids has announced a new, 30-page catalog of realia for foreign language teaching. Thirty-nine different languages are listed including recorded materials and texts for teaching English as a foreign language. The listings include phonograph recordings, tape recordings, slides, filmstrips, and flashcards. Included in the catalog is a section containing equipment for large language laboratories and inexpensive equipment to set up a small laboratory in the classroom. Instructors and libraries can obtain a free copy by writing to Language Training Aids, Language Center, Boyds, Maryland.

EUROPEAN TRAVEL STUDY PROGRAM IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

Wayne State University's College of Education and Graduate School again approve credit arrangements in connection with the Twelfth Annual European Travel Study Program in Comparative Education. Personally directed by Dr. William Reitz, Professor of Education, the travel-study will leave Detroit on June 18 and return on August 16, 1959. Eight countries will be visited during the 60-day journey. This program is designed to provide teachers, students, and other professional people with an opportunity to survey selected highlights of the life and culture of Western Europe. There are approximately 350 alumni of the past eleven programs.

Persons may qualify to earn up to 6 hours of undergraduate or graduate credit to apply on degree programs, for teaching certification, for annual salary increments. Others may register for "audit" credit and participate in the program for purposes of personal enrichment. The following options are offered in connection with the 1959 program: (1) return home on August 16th as



A
1959 world history
for high schools
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scheduled; (2) remain in Europe on one's own and return from Amsterdam on August 31st; (3) visit Spain and Portugal and return from Lisbon on September 1st; (4) visit four Eastern European countries and return from Amsterdam on August 31st; or visit four Scandinavian countries and return from Stavanger on September 1st. Programs for options 2, 3, and 4 will be arranged and costs quoted upon request. Further information may be obtained from Dr. Wm. Reitz, 727 Student Center, Wayne State University, Detroit 2, Michigan.

CIRCULATING LIBRARIES

This year the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the National Science Foundation, cooperatively with book publishers of the United States, are providing about 1,400 of the nation's senior high schools with 350 "circulating libraries," each consisting of 200 carefully selected science books. These "libraries" go to schools in all 48 states, Alaska, the Canal Zone, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico.

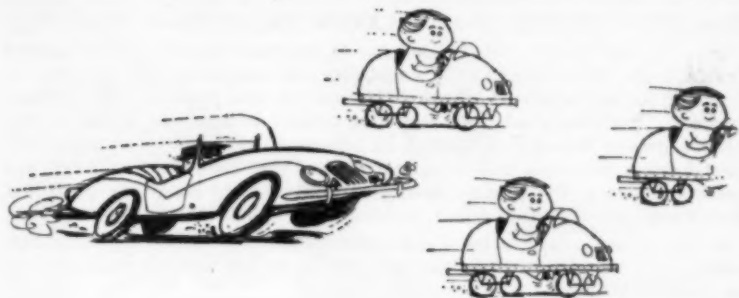
In addition to the 350 sets of books that are a part of the regular program, this year an additional seven sets are being lent to the Department of the Army for circulation among the 20 senior high schools operated for the children of United States citizens serving overseas. Furthermore, four sets will be lent to county library systems for circulation in bookmobiles as an experiment on the appeal of science books to adults and students in rural areas where high schools are too small to participate in the program.

GAINS FROM COACHING ARE SMALL

This conclusion is based on three studies on the effects of coaching that have been supported by the College Board. The over-all finding: Coached students do make small gains, but these are generally not large enough to give the students a substantial or unfair advantage over other students. According to Henry S. Dyer, now Vice President for Research and Advisory Services at ETS, these studies support the view that students who go to coaching schools in hopes of substantially bettering their SAT scores are throwing away their money. "They could do just as well by reviewing mathematics on their own and by reading a few good books."—*ETS Developments*, October 1958.

BOOK ON EMINENT AMERICANS

Who: Sixty Years of American Eminence (McDowell, Obolensky Inc., 219 East 61 Street, New York 21, N. Y., \$5) by Cedric Larson, tells an interesting story. Mr. Larson, a sociologist, who has always been interested in the study of eminence, has chosen a singularly exact and fascinating way to get to the heart of the subject: he has written the story of *Who's Who*, the classic American compendium of renown. *Who* is the only history of the A. N. Marquis Co., which publishes *Who's Who*. It marks the first time that the Editors have opened their complete files and archives. The publication of *Who* coincides with the 60th anniversary of the Marquis Co. and simultaneously celebrates the first edition of *Who's Who of American Women*, a new Marquis volume. Cedric Larson devotes an entire chapter to the changing role of women in American business, social work, the arts, and many other fields.



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FINANCING PROFESSIONAL SALARIES FOR NATION'S TEACHERS

In a 23-page booklet, titled *Financing Professional Salaries for Professional Teachers*, the NEA estimates the actual cost and long-range investment value of paying for well-educated, personally competent, and professionally prepared teachers. "Professional salaries," according to the booklet, mean higher starting salaries, greater financial recognition for advanced education, more substantial annual salary increases, and maximum salaries that compete with other professions. Facts on the teacher shortage, graphically and compactly presented, show these tie-ins with the salary structure:

- Salaries are a major factor in determining choice of a career and, unless the public can raise salaries, education will continue to lose talented and interested people to other fields.

- When vacancies are filled by untrained persons, they must learn to teach at the expense of the children.

- Income of teachers is close to the bottom of the professional scale. Lined up with 17 other professions, teacher salaries rank fourth from the bottom. For all teachers in public schools, the average salary is \$4,650. Estimated average income in the other professions for the same period is about \$7,600 or 63 per cent above the average teaching salary. Ten years after graduation from college, other professions offer more than double the salaries of beginners. Teachers often earn less than 50 per cent above starting salaries after the same time.

- Beginning salaries are too low to recruit the number and quality of college graduates needed.

EARLY EDUCATION OF MENTALLY RETARDED

Inadequate environment and undesirable parental attitudes contribute to—perhaps even generate—mental retardation in children, says Professor Samuel A. Kirk, director of the University of Illinois Institute for Research on Exceptional Children. He states that mental and social development of mentally retarded children, on the other hand, may be accelerated by early education. A five-year University of Illinois experiment with 81 pre-school retarded children found 43 who received training far in advance of 38 without training. Further, the trained children had retained their advantage at the end of extended followup.

Contrasting influence of home and pre-school was dramatically demonstrated by retarded twins and brothers and sisters of children enrolled in the pre-school. These children were left at home without training to serve as controls. Children in the same home who had the benefit of pre-school training tended to increase their rate of development and, in addition, to retain this acceleration after leaving school. The control group stayed at their original rate, or dropped, as they grew older.

A book by Professor Kirk about the experiment, *Early Education of Mentally Retarded Children*, has been published by the University of Illinois Press. It includes detailed case studies of all the children involved and comparison with control and contrast groups.

MENTAL ILLNESS

The cost of public mental hospital care in the United States today—exclusive of Veterans Administration hospitals—is estimated at 660 millions of dollars annually. In addition to this total, nearly one and three quarter billions of

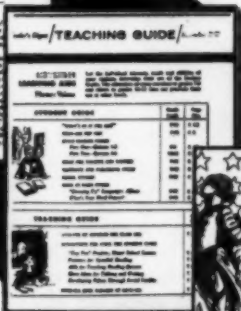
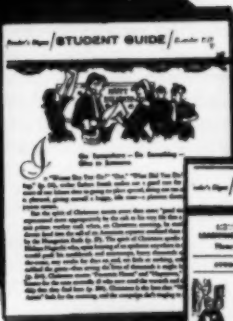
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dollars more are lost each year through other hospitalizations for mental illness, both public and private, and for psychiatric care outside of hospitals. These figures, computed statistically by Rashi Fein, economist with the Bureau of Census, Washington D. C., and former staff member of the President's Commission on the Health Needs of the Nation, are reported in his book, *Economics of Mental Illness*, by Basic Books, New York (\$3.00).

In his calculations, Fein takes into account what he calls both the "direct" and "indirect" costs of mental illness. "Direct" costs he defines as actual expenditures for the care of the mentally ill by public and private agencies, institutions and foundations, as well as by the families of disturbed individuals. "Indirect" costs, according to Fein, are the losses of earnings and work years of ill individuals, as well as the loss of production caused by their removal from the labor force.

THE HUMAN RESOURCE IN AGRICULTURE

Since 1910 our agricultural population has decreased both in number and in relation to the non-farm population. In 1910 there were approximately 32 million farmers, which included 35 per cent of our total population. Today 22 million people are classified as farmers and account for 12 per cent of the population. It is estimated that in 1975 only 7 per cent, or 15 million of our people, will be employed in food and fiber production.

Coupled with increased productive efficiency in agriculture is a tendency of people in farming to reproduce at a rate which exceeds replacement. The average reproduction rate for the farm population is 168. This means that for every 100 farm males who die or reach the age of 65 in the period 1950-60, about 168 will reach the age of 20 to replace them, making a surplus of 68 or about 40 per cent.—NEA Department of Rural Education.

CHANGES IN RURAL SOCIAL STRUCTURE

The march of events has contributed significantly to changes in the rural social structure. Socially the American farmer is involved in a process of desegregation. Up to the recent past, the rural school, the rural church, and other social organizations of the countryside were of, by, and for farmers and their families. The thousands of one-room schools which dotted the open country were supported and attended almost entirely by farm families.

This situation has changed drastically within a very brief period of time. For example, there were 113,600 one-room schools in 1940. Fifteen years later the number probably did not exceed 30,000. Farm families are now sending their children to the village school, to which they are transported daily by the village bus. Churches in the open are consolidating with those in the villages and towns.—NEA Department of Rural Education.

FILMSTRIP CATALOGS

The Text-Film Department of the McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York 36, New York, has released several new filmstrip catalogs. One of these, *Young America Filmstrips* (28 pp.), is a handy reference to more than 650 new filmstrips made especially for use in the classrooms of elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges. All YAF filmstrips are accompanied by free printed *Teacher's Guides*. Others are *Filmstrips* for high schools, colleges, and adult groups including many correlated with McGraw-Hill textbooks; and *Filmstrips and Records on Popular Science* for elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges. Some filmstrips are available in color,

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22 NEW MODELS IN GLOBES

A completely re-designed line of 31 space-age globes, including 22 brand new models, has been brought out by Rand McNally and Company. These up-to-date models, ranging in size from 6 to 16 inches, and in price from \$1.98 to \$250, have been completely changed with new maps, new bases, and new meridians. In addition to carrying more place names, they contain the locations of steamship lines, along with their distances between principal cities, and jet air times and distances between major cities.

A unique feature of the 1958 line is a revolutionary 12-inch satellite model which contains an orbit ring for tracing the path of an earth satellite. This model, priced at \$14.95, enables the user to determine present and future paths of any satellites around the earth, based on the angle of launching. The globe also contains calibration of miles, degrees, and hours for measuring air distances between any two points in the world, determining latitudes, and understanding earth-space relationships. A new three-way action permits easier rotation and brings points on the earth instantly into view.

Also a new 12-inch celestial globe is available with a satellite mounting. Three simple adjustments place the stars on this globe in positions relating to the heavens at any given time and place. Among the celestial problems that can be solved with this globe are: where to look in the sky for any particular star; what stars will never be seen from your location on earth; what star appears to remain in a fixed position in the sky; what stars will be visible in your sky on any clear night at a given hour; and many others. The celestial globe retails at \$19.95. For complete details about these globes, write to Rand McNally and Company, P. O. Box 7600, Chicago 80, Illinois.

NEA RESEARCH MEMOS

The Research Division of the National Education Association, during the past few months has prepared a number of mimeographed research memos on helpful aids. Among these are: "The Value of the Kindergarten" (memo 1958-2); "Special Days and Weeks Which Schools Are Sometimes Requested to Observe" (memo 1958-3); "Why Teachers Leave the Profession" (memo 1958-4); "Ability Grouping" (memo 1958-5); "Variety of Fields and Number of Class Preparations Reported by High-School Teachers" (memo 1958-6); "The All-Year School" (memo 1958-7); "Education in France, England, and Russia: Notes for Debaters" (memo 1958-8); "Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools" (memo 1958-9); "Policy Statements on Teachers' Salaries Made by the NEA and some of its Departments" (memo 1958-10). A single copy of each of these 10 memos is available free; they are not available in quantity. The Research Division will grant permission to reproduce, provided (a) that the memo is not sold for profit and (b) that the usual credit line is given to the NEA Research Division.

MANY TEACHERS USE EDUCATION TV

Approximately 198 teachers in the University City public school system used television programs in their classes during the 1957-58 school year, an increase over the previous year of approximately 138. The programs are telecast by



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KETC. A report by Dr. Fred E. Brooks, University City Coordinator for Television, says that the increased use of the educational television programs was due to improvement in the quality of the programs and the wider selection available. Supervisors have helped teachers determine the best methods of using television in the classroom, and teachers themselves have exchanged ideas on the subject.

PRESENT-DAY COMICS MAGAZINES

Records show that in 1954 there were some 42 firms publishing comics. Today there are only 13 actively engaged in this field. In 1954, there were 676 known comics titles listed. Today, according to the latest report, there are only 280. Of this number, 37 are monthlies; 99 are bimonthlies; 102 are quarterlies and 42 are one-shots.

Circulation figures have shown an increase from a low point of a couple years ago to a present figure of about 600 million copies a year, and the figure will be rising. For, along with the constantly broadening acceptance of comics as suitable and desirable reading matter for young people, there has been the additional advantage of a virtual upsurge in the population of the age-groups which constitute the prime market for comics.

The lives of great men often form the basis for comics stories or special pages and features. For example, during the celebration of the centennial of Theodore Roosevelt's birth, a number of comics titles ran pages devoted to T. R.'s life. Special pages are frequently devoted to religious themes, to brotherhood, and to the development of patriotism and good citizenship.—*C.M.A.A. Newsletter*.

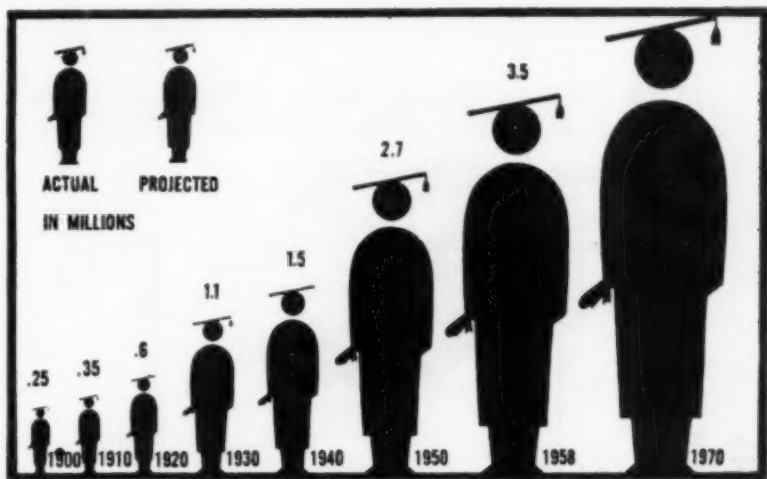
ART DEPARTMENT LOCATES AT NEA CENTER

The National Art Education Association is NEA's 21st department to establish headquarters at the NEA Center in Washington, D. C. With the move came the appointment of NAEA's first full-time executive secretary, Ralph G. Beelke, former art specialist for the U. S. Office of Education. Commenting on his new position, Mr. Beelke said: "In establishing the office of executive secretary, the National Art Education Association took an important step forward in asserting its leadership function in art education and in education generally. Through the executive secretary, the NAEA now can work more closely with other professional teachers organizations and lay groups interested in education." The NAEA officially an NEA department since 1933, has a membership of 5,000 art teachers. Current NAEA president is W. Reid Hastie, professor, department of art education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Nine NEA departments are still located outside Washington.—*NEA News*, October 10, 1958.

FOLLOWING IN THEIR FOOTSTEPS

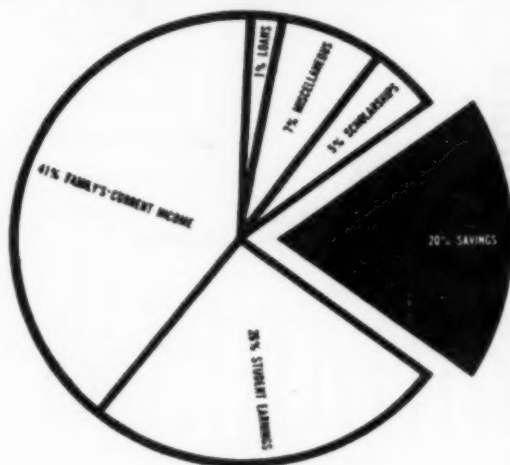
A high-school supervisor in Kentucky saw a high-school teacher do a top-notch job in science but do miserably in teaching a class in history. The supervisor asked him why he taught the way he did in each class. He said he was imitating two college instructors. One model was excellent, the other was poor. The teacher hadn't realized or thought through the difference.—*Edgar Dale*, editor of *The New Letter*, October, 1958.

COLLEGE ENROLLMENT 1900-1970



COLLEGE ENROLLMENT 1900-1970. The black figures in this graph illustrate the tremendous increase in American college enrollment from 1900 to 1958. The gray figure represents projections based upon Government statistics and shows present college enrollment almost doubling within 12 years.

SOURCES OF STUDENT INCOME

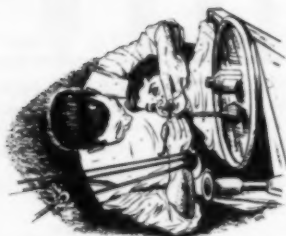
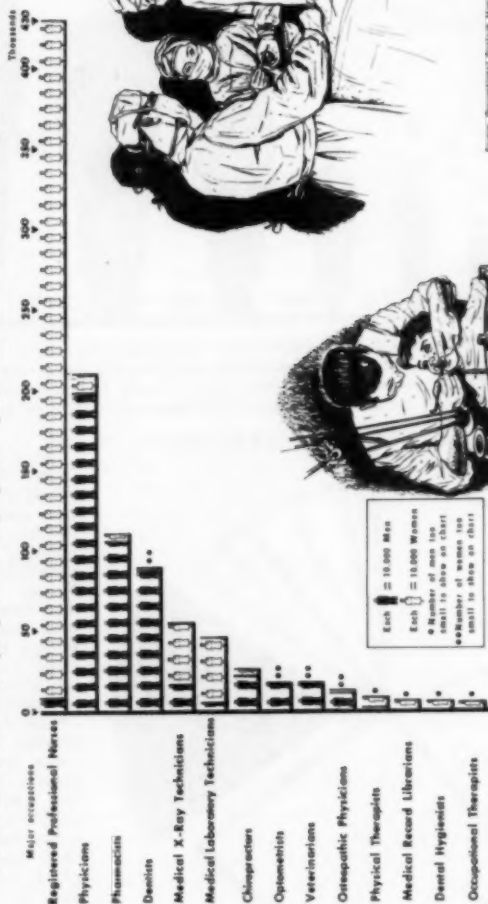


According to figures from the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 20% of every dollar spent for American education comes from family savings. The doubling of college costs by 1970 means that if all other factors remain the same and the proportion is unchanged, \$15,600,000,000 will have to come from this source. Actually, the limitation of scholarship funds and other factors indicates that the proportion of the college bill paid from savings will have to increase.

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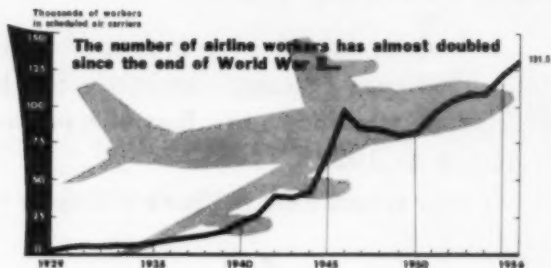
Source: Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1957 Edition
Bureau of Labor Statistics Service No. 1575

This and other occupational outlook materials are available free of charge to the public. For more information, write to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Occupational Outlook Section, Washington, D. C. 20540. For a free copy of the Occupational Outlook Manual, write to the Occupational Outlook Section.

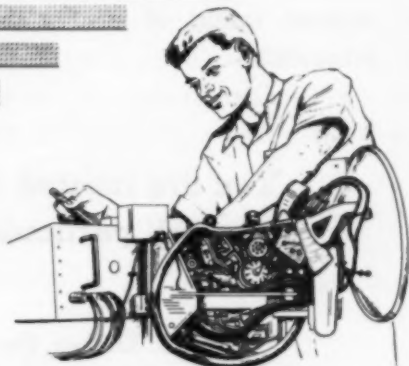
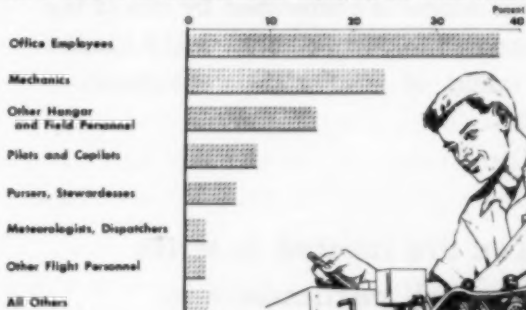
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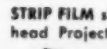
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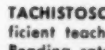
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for the School Year 1958-59

The National Association of Student Councils
of the
National Association of Secondary-School Principals
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington 6, D. C.

APPLICATION FOR MEMBERSHIP

The Student Council of.....
Name of School

Address*.....
Street City or Town Zone State

Sponsor of Student Council.....

The National Association of Student Councils serves the student councils of the nation through advisory and consultative service, distribution of printed material, field service, and as a clearinghouse of student projects and activities. New members receive two handbooks: *The Student Council in the Secondary School* and the *1958 Student Council Yearbook*, and two copies a month of *Student Life*, a 32-page, illustrated magazine of student activities. Annual rates of membership are based on size of school enrollment:

L (large)—1,000 or larger.....	\$10.00
M (medium)—300 to 999.....	8.00
S (small)—less than 300.....	5.00

Enroll now and membership will be paid until June 30, 1959.

High School enrollment this year.....

Amount of membership fee enclosed.....

Date.....Principal.....

*Two copies of *Student Life* will be sent monthly to this address, eight times (October-May) during the school year. Enroll now.

The Twenty-second Annual National Conference of members of the National Association of Student Councils will be held in the Ferguson High School, Ferguson, Missouri, June 22-26, 1958.

SOUTHWESTERN REGIONAL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CONFERENCE

ATTENTION: All principals, supervisors, and educational leaders
in the junior high school and in the junior-senior
high school in these states

Arkansas	Missouri
Colorado	Nebraska
Kansas	New Mexico
Louisiana	Oklahoma

Texas

YOU are invited to take part in the second regional junior high-
school conference arranged by the NASSP Committee on Junior
High School Education.

WHERE: Campus of Oklahoma State University, Still-
water, Oklahoma

WHEN: November 11-13, 1959

SPONSORS: Oklahoma Secondary-School Principals Asso-
ciation
National Association of Secondary-School
Principals

HOUSING & MEALS: Available at minimum cost on campus at The
Union

PROGRAM: General sessions, discussion groups, clinics,
and school visits

Further Details

Invitation and preliminary registration form will be sent you in
May 1959.

Mark Your Calendar Now

For Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, November 11-13, 1959.

Until Then

Write Ellsworth Tompkins, NASSP, 1201-16th Street, NW,
Washington 6, D. C., for further information.

WILLIAM T. GRUHN, *Chairman*, NASSP Committee on Junior High
School Education.

JAMES E. FRAISER, *Chairman* of Southwest Regional Conference.

PAUL E. ELICKER, NASSP, *Executive Secretary*.

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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

A Department of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

1958-59

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A FREE COPY OF A PLAY

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- consider for production
- at your school

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